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P R E F A C E.

The following sheets were begun, and the two first printed in 1849, but owing to domestic engagements the rest have not been finished till the present date. The Author thinks it as well to make a note of this, as should any thing similar have been produced in the meanwhile others might be supposed to have borrowed from him, or he from others, any of the subject matter. He had found already with regard to some of his privately printed papers good reason to suppose others had borrowed from him, and that without acknowledging it, perhaps from their not knowing the original source. Where the Author has borrowed he believes he has always acknowledged it, if he thought there was the least occasion for it. Etymology has long been a favourite

pursuit of his, and he has here made free use of it, some may think too much, and like every thing else it may not only be used but abused; still how are we to trace satisfactorily the ideas of mankind expressed by their language, unless we discover the foundation on which that language is based. Language, I think, may be compared to a tree, and Etymology to its roots, hidden indeed from ordinary observers, but still the origin and support of its life, or, to use a more homely simile, Etymology may be compared to a potato, the good part below the ground, while all above is rubbish. The Author's principal motive in publishing this was that finding his manuscript accumulate too rapidly for his private printing press, one of Holtzappfel's parlour presses, he thought it would save him some trouble to publish, and might possibly cover the expense of printing; and he would be satisfied, though he could not like Nebuchadnezzar make "all people and nations," if he could make "all languages" serve him. His only claim is to originality, for though he has seen extracts from, he has never possessed or even seen the ponderous folios, as he supposes them to be, of Camden and our other

antiquarians; but he cannot help expressing a hope here that before long we may have the Welsh Archæological Triads, the Historical part particularly, as he believes has been already advertised, translated and published.

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BRITAIN:

ITS EARLIEST HISTORY, &c.

CHAPTER I.

Herodotus, bk. 3, ch. 15, appears to be the earliest historian extant, who mentions the Cassiterides, or British Islands, though by name only, for he says that he knows nothing of them ; but Cæsar, *de bello Gallico*, bk. 6, ch. 14, says that the Gallic Druids used the Greek language and literature, and, as he says just before, ch. 13, that their system was supposed to be derived from Britain, we may reasonably infer that the British Druids also used the Greek language and literature, and hence, also, the probability of Britain having been at some time and to some extent colonized by the Greeks. Further, on considering

among other ancient British names of persons and things that of Lud, who is said to have been one of the earliest British Kings, from whom Ludgate and London are supposed to have derived their names, it seems probable that he was so called, as having originally come from Lydia, or else from one of its Greek colonies, mentioned by Herodotus, bk. 1, ch. 6, as having been conquered by Cræsus, King of Lydia, whether,—for Herodotus leaves it rather doubtful,—in Asia Minor or Greece; and Greece itself may have been partially colonized from Lydia. Now to the Lydo-Græcian elements of the colonization of Britain we must add another and a prior one, namely, that of the Cimmerii, Cimbri, or Kymry, in conjunction with the other two, Herodotus, bk. 1, ch. 6, 15, 16; bk. 4, ch. 1, 11, 13; bk. 7, ch. 20, says that the Cimmerians were driven by the Scythians into Asia Minor, where they took possession of Sardis the Capital of Lydia; and doubtless, prior to their subsequent expulsion by Alyattes, Herodotus, bk. 1, ch. 16, amalgamated themselves with the Lydians, its previous inhabitants. In fact this view of the question, based on the ety-

mology of the name of Lud above mentioned, is absolutely confirmed by the Welsh Archæology, as quoted by Sharon Turner, History of the Anglo Saxons, bk. 1, ch. 2, note 75, which says, "The first peaceful people of Britain were the Kymri, the next Lloegrwys from Gwasgwyn, the third Brython, and from the Land of Llydaw they came, and these three nations were of the first race of the Kymry." Trioedd ynys Prydain, 2 Archaïol, p. 58. Now of the second of these, the Lloegrwys, I can see nothing worth noting, if, as I suppose, it is intended to represent them as originally coming from Locri, either in Italy or Greece, and subsequently from Gwasgwyn, by which I understand either Gascony in France, or the Basque provinces in Spain, but the first and third of these are, from what I have before stated on the authority of Herodotus, namely, that the Cimmerians or Kymry established themselves in Lydia, identical, at least so far as that they both came from the same country, Lydia, written by the Welsh, Llydaw, and Brython is the name derived from their new country, Britain, under which they were both included.

To begin, then, with the Kymry, or Cimmerians, from whom the Welsh of this day boast their descent, in the absence of any historical record, we shall have recourse to an etymological enquiry into their origin. They may have been the descendants of Gomer, Genesis, ch. 10, v. 2, son of Japheth, son of Noah, among whom the Isles of the Gentiles were divided ; the letter g, particularly when followed by an h, as is often the case, being so softened down as to become little or nothing more than an aspirate, while to account for the substitution of the k for the g, we may suppose it to be either an abbreviated article or preposition, similar to the Scotch and Irish Mac or O, as in Mac Donald, O'Neil, indicating descent, or to make a distinction between two different tribes of one and the same nation ; the vowel y, too, which is almost identical with i, being to this day generally pronounced by the Welch like u, and this, again, often like oo, sometimes abbreviated in writing into o long ; or, still sinking the initial consonant, they may have been of the race of Esau, also called Edom, Genesis, ch. 25, v. 30, but in this case they

would be of the race of Shem, not of Japheth. Now as Edom signifies red, and Homeir in Arabic has the same signification, Edom and Homeir seem only two different names for one and the same person, Esau. Thus, perhaps, the Homeridæ, the Poet Homer, and the Persian and Arab families of Omar may be all descended from Esau. This signification of the name would well connect and correspond with both what is said of Esau, Genesis, ch. 27, v. 40, "By thy sword shalt thou live," and of the plundering habits of the Cimmerians, by Herodotus, bk. 1, ch. 6, for the name Cimmerii would be derivable from the Persian word *scimitar*, in Latin *acinaces*, and in Gaelic *skene* in *skenedhu*, and they would be nominally, as really, men of the sword.

In connection with this view of the question I shall now consider what Herodotus, bk. 4, ch. 62, says of the Scythians offering sacrifice to a *sciuitar*, or sword, as an emblem of divinity. This custom is evidently based on the previously quoted words of Isaac to Esau, Genesis, ch. 27, v. 40, "By thy sword shalt thou live;" and as I have before applied them

in the case of the name of the Kymri, it becomes necessary in order to establish the theory to connect the Kymry with the Scythians. That they were neighbours is probable from the fact, Herodotus, bk. 1, ch. 15, that the Cimmerians were driven out by the Scythians ; that they were of kindred origin appears still more probable, from their common application to themselves of the words of Isaac to Esau, with regard to the sword ; and on the whole we may safely venture on the assumption that, if the Kymri were pure Edomites, or descendants of Esau, the Scythians were descended partly from Esau, partly from Ishmael, by the marriage of Esau with Ishmael's daughter, Genesis, ch. 28, v. 9. ; the direct descendants of Ishmael, who, Genesis, ch. 21, v. 20, became an archer, being most probably the Parthians, so called from his having lived in the wilderness of Paran, and who were of old so renowned for their skill in the use of the bow ; as were also the Scythians, Strabo. 187. Another proof of a close affinity of the Scythians with the Edomites and other descendants of Abraham, would be their abstinence from the flesh of swine, Herodotus,

bk. 4, ch. 63, according to the Mosaic Law, Leviticus, ch. 11, v. 6. Another view of the appellation of the Cymry, taking it to mean simply mountaineers, might be deduced from the Persian word kuh or koh, signifying a hill, in Latin cumulus, English combe, Welsh cwm ; in these two last languages, however, I understand by it rather, a hill side, or even a valley ; perhaps what the Scotch call a corrie, which is a valley in the top of a hill ; for though the ideas of a hill and valley seem the reverse one of the other, yet as the idea of a hill implies that of a valley, and vice versa, from the hill to the hill side, and thence to the valley, the transition is so gradual, that unless where there was a necessity for drawing a nicer line of distinction than usual, the same terms would be applicable to all three things, or a part put for the whole, and a whole for a part, indiscriminately. This view of the origin of their name, taken from the nature of the country of their abode would accord well with the statement of Herodotus, bk. 1, ch. 15, that the Cimmerians were driven by the Scythians from their abodes, which, for reasons I shall

hereafter state, I believe to have been that part of the mountains of the Caucasus, lying between the Black and the Caspian Seas, and would also enable us to view them in a light independent of all our former considerations as to the families from whence they may have originated, though, and with reason, their name may have been intended to comprehend both this and the preceding theories; and might also incline us to view the Welsh Kymry, as so called simply from the mountainous nature of their country, just as at the present day a part of the Scotch nation is called Highlanders. The last view I take of the Kymry is founded not so much on the origin of their families, still less on the nature of their abodes, but on the meaning of the word kuh, which I have little or no doubt, even though the exact word be not now extant, formerly signified a cow or bull. It seems to me to exist, with a slight variation, in the Latin pecus, vulgarly abbreviated p'cus, and in our English cow or kine. I assume the fact of the word having existed, if not in the ordinary, yet in the symbolical or hieroglyphical language of antiquity, from

the African and also, perhaps, Asiatic word, Kumri, in Ethiopic or Abyssinian, signifying the moon, as in Djebel Kumri, Mountains of the Moon. For as in a certain state of the moon, namely, when it is said to be a new moon, it assumes the shape of the horns of a cow, it would be symbolically represented by those horns, whence also, perhaps, the letter C was thus formed, and the same word would signify both the moon and a cow as represented by its horns. Were the Kymri then a band of promiscuous adventurers under the ensigns, and perhaps entertaining some superstitious ideas of the divinity of their common ancestor Noah, represented in the antediluvian Book of Enoch, ch. 88, v. 1, under the symbol of a cow? This common superstition might thus be supposed to form a mystic bond of union like that of our Freemasonry, and which, like it, though not equally strong with the claims of consanguinity and neighbourhood, yet as long as it might be conducive to their interests, would be sufficient for all ordinary purposes. In this latter sense of the word kuh, I understand it to mean one of the Indian breed of cows with the hump on its back, which hump

connects it with its former meaning in Persian of hill, or any thing elevated.

I think, then, the Cymri must be viewed as a colony of Edomites, Ishmaelites, or Arabs, originally from the Isthmus, now called Suez ; for these nations in those days, from their local position at the Isthmus, having the command both by land and water of the principal channel of communication and traffic between Asia and Africa, the Arabs in particular being the most skilful navigators of the early ages ; it would be their policy also by establishing colonies to gain where possible a similar power over the other lines of communication such as that between Europe and Asia, more particularly the northern parts of them, and Africa, especially the overland line, and even, if the theory be correct which I have elsewhere attempted to establish, over the intercourse with America by way of Japan, of the certainty and extent of which we cannot however expect much information, till at some future time the archives of that singularly self-isolated empire shall be laid open to us. Now a settlement on the line of the Caucasus at and near the present Crimea with the

Caspian on one side, and the Euxine or Black Sea communicating by the Dardanelles with the Mediterranean on the other, seems particularly adapted to these ends. I would here remark that in my view of the Cymry as men of the sword it would be more correct to distinguish the weapon as the naval or curved sword used by them in their maritime capacity rather than the straight sword more adapted to fighting on land. The principal article of their traffic I am inclined to think was the gold from Siberia, for it seems that there is very little of this or any other metal in the range of the Caucasus, and the fact of veins of minerals generally running in mountainous countries gives additional strength to my previous view of the Cymry being so called from kuh, a mountain, supposing them to be principally engaged in mining transactions, or connected with those who were.

To guide me in these researches I shall again return to Herodotus, bk. 4, ch. 13; he relates on the authority of Aristæas, that the Issedones, who were most probably connected with the Scythians in the same manner that

I have supposed the Scythians to be with the Cymry, were neighbours of the Arimaspians, and the gold-guarding griffins; of the Arimaspians he says that they were a one-eyed people, bk. 3, ch. 116; and not only does he say so, but seems rather afraid that others should think him capable of believing it. To explain this extraordinary story, without attributing it to a casual *lusus naturæ*, although I have elsewhere, and I think on good grounds, in the case of Homer's Cyclops, supposed it to signify the early discovery and use of the magnifying-glass or telescope, yet in this case we might have referred Herodotus to his own subsequent declaration, bk. 4, ch. 2, that the Scythians put out the eyes of every prisoner they take. Now as it seems more reasonable to suppose that the Scythians would only put out one eye of each man, merely to mark him, and by putting out the right eye, to prevent his using the bow with any effect against them should he revolt, whereas by putting out both eyes they would render them comparatively useless, I prefer this view of the question, and suppose that the use they made of these

Arimaspian captives was in working the gold mines. The griffins of antiquity, if they were either fish, flesh, or fowl, may have been the flying-fish, or a cross between that and the great sea-snake, or another name for the ants, said also to guard the gold, Herodotus, bk. 3, ch. 102. If they were the flying-fish, I think they seem to indicate an intercourse with America, across the Pacific, and trade in the gold and silver of Chili and Peru, supposed by some to be the ancient Ophir, 1 Kings, ch. 9, v. 28, otherwise they may have been intended to represent the noxious gases accumulating in the mines, and so destructive of human life. I have enlarged on these last subjects, as we shall have to consider the Cymry as mainly engaged in mining operations in their future country, Britain.

We must now, after having done our best with the Cimmerians, take the Lydians into consideration a little prior to our joint view of the two nations. The Ludim appear, from Genesis, ch. 10, v. 13, to be sons of Mizraim, sons of Ham, settled in Asia Minor, and the name of the first of their kings of

the race of the Heraclidæ Argo being identical with that of Jason's ship, leads me to think that it was in his reign that the commercial spirit of his nation first began to develope itself, and extend its operations to the Cimmerian Bosphorus. The last king of this race, Candaules, was murdered by Gyges, who may be supposed from the story of his magical ring, or, as it may be otherwise understood, circle, to have increased the trade and riches of his nation either by a knowledge of the earth being a sphere, as partially indicated by Herodotus, bk. 4, ch. 36, and effecting the circumnavigation of it, or by an improvement in the compass, such as that of mounting it on a pivot, so that the needle would describe a circle in its return to the magnetic point when diverted either way to the opposite point, the compass itself having been probably hitherto only suspended, its properties being well known and mentioned by Homer, in his *Odyssey*, bk. 8, l. 556, about a century; according to Rollin, before this time. Gyges being said also to have descended into a chasm of the earth on a brazen horse seems to me clearly to mean, that as

they had hitherto in their search after gold and other metals, contented themselves with what they could collect on the surface, as they collect at this day some of the tin, called stream-tin, so they then began to drive shafts in search of ore into the bowels of the earth. In the reign of Gyges' son Ardys, B.C. 680, the Lydians become connected with the Cimmerians, the latter being driven out of their country, as already mentioned on the authority of Herodotus, by the Scythians, and settling themselves in Sardis in Lydia, where they remained during the reign of Sadyattes, son and successor of Ardys, but were expelled by Alyattes, son and successor of Sadyattes, B.C. 620. The reason doubtless of the expulsion of the Cimmerians by the Scythians in the first place, and by the Lydians in the second, was jealousy of their having by their enterprise secured to themselves a monopoly of trade, thereby gaining the power of closing the channels of commerce whenever they chose, and only opening them again when it suited their purposes so to do, however much it might have been to the disadvantage of others.

We now see the Cimmerians after a stay in Lydia of about fifty years, a period sufficient to establish a lasting connexion both familiar and commercial with its inhabitants, again changing their habitations, and as it is improbable from their having been previously driven out by the Scythians that they would be allowed to return in that direction, I am disposed to think that they found their way, a part at least if not all of them, for some might have returned to their original country Arabia, by sea to Britain, for to Britain I assume that they went, B.C. 620: whether on their voyage they may not have contributed, if not to the earliest foundation, yet to a considerable increase of, Rome may be perhaps hereafter a matter worthy of some consideration. Our enquiries now must be directed from the connection of the Cymry with the Lydians to that of the latter with the Greeks, but so intimately do these last seem blended together in various respects, that the difficulty would be rather to distinguish them. Herodotus, bk. 1, ch. 6, says that Cræsus was the first who conquered and exacted tribute from any of the Greeks. By

this he may have meant only those settled in Asia, or, if, as I have before supposed, Greece was originally colonized from Asia, if Crœsus subdued the parent states in Asia, it is most likely the colonies in Greece dependent on them would have submitted to him too. However this may be, that Herodotus should not have entered more fully into the question is easily accounted for by supposing that he did not wish to offend the vanity of his countrymen, if there were any grounds for supposing that their ancestors had not always been what they themselves then were, free and independent. Having now in the earlier parts of my undertaking considered what might be more properly said to be based on oral tradition than on written record, we can now with regard to the Greeks themselves begin to see our way more clearly in their own annals of authentic history.

CHAPTER II.

BRITAIN, although mentioned by Diodorus Siculus, Hist., bk. 5, c. 21, separately, and c. 38, as distinct from the Cassiterides, or Tin Islands, must certainly be included under that name, for there are no other islands would answer their description of situation and metallic produce, neither the Channel, Balearic, Canary, Azores, Madeira, the island of Banca in the Malay Archipelago, though it has its tin mines, or what would, I think, be going too far in our suppositions the West India Islands and Cuba has its copper mines. The imperfect information on this point of, and consequent misdescription by Diodorus, has led to some very curious mistakes on the part of others. For some, misled by his calling Ictis an island, have thought proper to suppose that by it he must have meant the Scilly Islands, and that these last only were

properly the Cassiterides, for they do produce a little tin ; and have then gone so far as to suppose that the Scilly Islands were in former times connected with the mainland of Britain at the Land's End, in order to account for his story of the waggons loaded with tin crossing to the Island on dry ground at low water. Now Ictis being beyond doubt St. Michael's Mount, is an island only at high water, and the waggon communication is still carried on there to this very day, when the tide is out. Besides if the matter wanted any further confirmation, Diodorus speaks of the peculiar fact of Mont St. Michel on the opposite coast of Normandy being, as it really is, in a similar situation at low water. The name Cassiterides, generally allowed to mean the Tin Islands, is yet susceptible of another interpretation, for if derived from the Hebrew katseh, finis, it would be synonymous with the word Thule, and the ancient British Tol, as in Tol Peder Penwith, allied, as I think, through the Greek tele procul, with telos, the extremity, as it was supposed to be, of the Earth ; the Scilly Islands also appear to have been formerly called Sully, the change from

which, by substituting t for s, a thing continually seen in etymology to be done, to Thule is very probable. In the usual acceptation of the term Cassiterides as Tin Islands, it is evidently from the Greek *kassiteros tin*, and the peculiarly valuable properties of this metal denoted in its name either from the Hebrew *'kecut*, a covering, or the Greek *kataseuo*, to sew or join together, consist in its constituting the best covering or soldering for other metals; Holtzappfel's *Turning*, &c. Vol. 1, c. 13, Art. Tin.

Various as have been the conjectures as to the precise meaning of the name Britain, I prefer one for which I am indebted to that work of immense research, the *Origines* of Sir William Drummond: he says, Vol. 4, bk. 7, c. 11, on the authority of Strabo and Stephanus Byzantinus, that the Phrygians used a word *brig*, to this very day curiously enough used by the Scotch in exactly the same form and sense, meaning a ferry or bridge, which two senses of the word, though not quite the same thing, amount nearly to it, inasmuch as the two things answer the same purpose. The exact origin of this word *brig*

I cannot trace, but am inclined to think it allied to the Cornish brea, a stone or rock, in Gaelic brae, as in Braemar, Bredalbane, a rocky hill side, eminence, for the simplest form of a bridge would be some stepping stones, or stone slabs laid across a brook. I fancy I distinguish it in the final syllable of the Greek gephura, a bridge, which again resembles the Indian termination of poor, as in Bhurtpore, Ferozepore, apparently meaning a passage, or, if ever applied to places, where there was no passage of a river or mountains, borrowed from other places where there was. In this case Britain would mean simply the land where there was such a passage to be made by ferry, as there is from Dover to Calais, and elsewhere along the coast ; and Brighton, Bristol, also seem to be so called on this account ; the final syllable tan or stan being the Persian and Arabic for earth, land, or possibly meant to denote the ore, if any was exported in its raw state previous to the tin being extracted ; the ore being to ordinary observers, no better than common earth ; hence also the Latin stannum, and our own stan-nary, all tending to the same point of

meaning: The word brig seems to be best preserved in the name of the British tribe of the Brigantes, whom I suppose to have been originally settled on the Straits of Dover, although it appears that they afterwards occupied some of the Northern counties, a change easily accounted for when we consider the effect produced by the influx of fresh comers at that point from the mainland of Europe instigated by the hope of plunder, the desire of change, or the fear of other nations, more especially under the influence of the pressure caused by the expansion of the Roman power, if not so much before, at any rate during the time of Julius Cæsar, and his successors. Another source from whence we may derive the name of Britain is the Persian beritzen furnaces, and when we consider the abundance of coal in this island, and consider the importance of it as fuel in smelting and working the tin and other metals, this signification of the name would seem particularly appropriate. Again, Britain may seem to be a name indicative of its position, in the northern part of Europe, and to be synonymous with Prussians, Russians,

so called undoubtedly from their similar position, and from Boreas, the northern quarter and wind, and anciently written Borussi; and the Welsh, who suppose themselves not without reason to be the ancient Cymri to this day confound the b with the p, as in the preceding page 3, Prydain for Britain, and as I have also before remarked the i or y with the u.

It may be as well now to consider what the older opinions on this subject were, and though we may pass over the poetical nonsense and prosaic rubbish of the old English Chronicles, we ought to pay more attention to the opinions of such a man as Milton on this subject in his History of Britain. He mentions the story of a Brutus having been one of the earliest colonists of this country, and that too in connection with a Trojan origin.

Now this must have been based on the etymology of the word brig before quoted as a Phrygian and Thracian word, for there is no doubt that the Trojans being Phrygians, the Phrygians were called Bryges, and to reconcile the whole, I think we must view Troy as a Cymric station and mart. I have

elsewhere remarked that the name of Æneas appeared to me to be Arabic, from the word ain, the eye, and expressive of the supernatural experiences attributed to the Palladium in that respect, as in Enoch, c. 1, v. 1, and I have in these pages already expressed my opinion that the Cymri were Arabs, so that the views I have taken of the subject on the whole seem to bear well one upon the other. Besides it is far more reasonable to suppose that the Trojan war arose from the same causes to which I have attributed the expulsion of the Cymri by the Lydians, namely, a jealousy on the part of the Greeks of Troy having monopolized, and a wish to throw open the channels of commerce, than that the Greeks should have gone so far in the cause of such a woman as Helen. This last version of the story, however well suited to the purposes of a poet being scarcely reconcilable to the more sober dictates of common sense. Having thus attempted to account for the Trojan part of the story, we must suppose that Milton followed Virgil in making Æneas come to Italy, and was then misled by the similarity of the name of

Brutus to that of Britain, and concluded that Brutus gave his name to Britain, and also that Brutus came from Italy. I myself had formed another opinion on the subject, which I have since seen, is also that of Camden as far as regards the name of Britain. I had supposed the Roman Bruti to be so called as having been originally some of the Greek Prytanes or Prutanes, magistrates, and who had migrated to Rome, for I believe that beginning with Numa many of the original elements of the Roman empire and civilization were Greek. Now as we have already seen a connection between the Lydians and Greeks, we have what I consider good reason for supposing one between the Greeks and Romans, the Romans and Trojans, the Trojans and Cymri, and each and all of them with Britain ; but I think my first view of the origin of the name of Britain superior to that which would view it, through Brutus or not, as a Greek Prytaneia, or colonial dependency governed by a Prytanis.

As we have before referred to the name of London as likely to throw some light on the history of the country, so now to recur to

it, we find it mentioned by Tacitus, *Annales*, l. 14, c. 33, under the name of Londinium. Now this, although perhaps more adapted to the Roman pronunciation, I do not think was the original form, but that it was Lugdunum, and if I wished to write it as classically as possible, I should write Lugdunum Britan-norum to distinguish it from the two other places styled Lugdunum, which were Lugdunum Batavorum, Leyden, and Lugdunum Gallorum, Lyons. The similarity of names seemed to me to indicate some connection between all three, not only that they were founded by the same people, the Lydians, as I have before argued in the case of London, but also in a commercial view, and I find that Diodorus, *Hist.*, l. 5, c. 22, mentions a traffic in tin down the Rhone, from Lyons to Marseilles, but on pack-horses, while I had previously supposed not only one from Leyden up the Rhine with an overland portage across to Lyons, and then down the Rhone, but also another from Leyden up the Rhine, and across to and down the Danube. These routes would not have been opened till after the intervening country had become

well settled, and even then the trade by sea round through the Straits of Gibraltar might not have been wholly discontinued, the great impediment to this last route by sea being the usually and well known boisterous state of the Bay of Biscay. Besides in confirmation of my view of Lugdunum being the more correct way of writing Londinium, Cæsar, *de bello Gallico*, l. 5, c. 22, mentions a certain Lugotorix, whom, whatever his other name may have been, I take to be the king or chief man of London. It may be objected to my supposition of a trade up the Rhine that the difficulties of overcoming the strength of the downward current would have been insurmountable in those days, but when we consider that in our own warfare of late, our soldiers have tracked their boats with provisions, ammunition and other stores up the rivers of the East, although there was no towing path, I do not think the objection a serious one. The Welsh are inclined to think London means the town of Llyn, or the lake, as the broad expanse of the Thames might well be called, and the Scotch use the word loch not only for a fresh but also

for a salt water lake ; but I merely mention this last derivation to show the diversity of opinion that exists on these points, not that I agree with them.

To the next point the author turns with no little pride, for long as the precise etymology of the word Thames has baffled the researches of, as he believes, every antiquarian, he flatters himself he has set the matter finally at rest by making it out to be the pure Greek potamos, contracted p'tamos, and meaning simply the river, as from its size and navigable qualities it may well be termed par excellence of Britain. To the same source he refers the names Tamar, Tay, Tivy, Tanais the modern Don, each, of course, with some slight variation to distinguish them from one another, where there was occasion to do so.

It would be easy no doubt to make a long list of British words derived immediately and not through other languages from the Arabic, Greek, and other ancient sources, but we shall for the present content ourselves with a few of those which present themselves most prominently to our view,

and only add to the foregoing those of the Welsh mountain Cader Idris, which, as it commemorates, Idris being the Arabic for Enoch, the most pre-eminent character of the antediluvian age, and that of Snowdon, formerly Eryri, which from the fact of Ireland, anciently Ierne, Strabo, Geog. l. 4, c. 5, being visible from its summit, I believe to have been so designated on that account, as being particularly entitled to our notice.

CHAPTER III.

CRÆSUS, the son of Alyattes,—to return to the period at which we had arrived at the end of our first chapter,—so celebrated for his riches, must have derived them from the happy combination of circumstances, which we have been endeavouring to prove were the consequence of the enterprising spirit of the Cymri, whose example and rank in commerce as men of business, he was on their expulsion enabled to emulate and assume. For the gold of Siberia was the medium through which all commercial transactions of any magnitude, the system of barter being limited to those of minor importance, were effected, whether it represented the tin and metallic produce of Britain and the West, or the silks and spices of the East, the demand of necessity or the self-indulgence of luxury, or to take a more abstract view of its uses, the

benevolence of liberality, or the narrow-mindedness of avarice, or evinced the foresight and prudence of its possessor in securing to himself and posterity an honourable independence with the approbation of others, and his own internal satisfaction. But however worthy of these advantages Cræsus may have been in the earlier parts of his career he appears at a later period to have given way so much to superstition in listening to and confiding his treasures to the dubious oracles of Delphi as to have lost all confidence in himself and the powers by which under Providence he had been enabled to amass these riches, and, finally, was obliged to yield to the superior powers of Cyrus, king of Persia, the Lord's Anointed, Isaiah, c. 45, v. 1; Ezra, c. 1, v. 1. The Jewish account of these struggles may I think have been contained in the book of the Wars of the Lord, mentioned in Numbers, c. 28, v. 14. Henceforth then I think that though the commerce with Britain may have been carried on in Lydian vessels and with Lydian mariners, yet its channels may have been diverted from their previous sources, and guided by the

hands and subservient to the interests of other nations, such as the Phœnicians, Greeks, Jews, and Persians.

From this period then, or about 600 B.C. to that of Julius Cæsar's invasion, B.C. 60, when we get fresh information on the subject from his Commentaries, we have an interval of above 500 years of the events during which we can gain nothing worth recording from the Welsh Archæology or other sources now extant. The list of petty princes, if not fictitious characters, as they did nothing worth recording, is not worth repeating, and we must view Britain as standing in the same relation to the Eastern shores of the Mediterranean, as Borneo now does and is likely for some time to do to Britain. Those who thought it worth their while to make a longer stay there than usual or absolutely necessary for the purposes for which they came, always, as our countrymen in India also to this day, looking forward and arranging their plans and making a disposition of their affairs with a view to their eventual return to their native country.

To the Lydians succeed in the view we

proposed at the beginning of our undertaking to take of the civilization of Britain, the Greeks. Herodotus indeed, in that part of his History still extant, though he acknowledges his ignorance of Britain, still in his other writings, if he really wrote any other, for he may only have intended, bk. 1, ch. 106, to call attention by holding out promises to what he intended to write, may have thrown more light on the subject, and these writings may have perished at the destruction of the Alexandrian Library, A. D. 640. But it is to the later Greek writers Diodorus Siculus and Strabo, who flourished about the period of the Christian Era, that we are indebted for the most information; but after all, if as we have supposed, the intercourse between Greek and Briton was almost entirely commercial, it would be rather to the ledger of the merchant and to the log-book of the sailor, than to the pages of the historian, who would seek nobler subjects, that we should look for more particular information, and these too may have shared the fate of the others in the Alexandrian Library.

We pass now from the more distant to the nearer sources of the civilization and peopling of Britain, and foremost among these in point of neighbourhood we must rank the Gauls, who were called also Celtæ. The first appears to have been the Latin way of writing the name, the second the Greek, and the name itself they may have derived from having been a tribe originally employed in collecting and trafficking in the gall nuts, in Latin galla, of the oak, so useful in dyeing what little linen they had in those days compared to what we have now, or the cup of the acorn, still called valonia, and a great article of commerce, which with the bark was of great importance in preserving the leather, which on account of the scarcity of linen they must have made so much use of in dress, and also for armour and other purposes ; or taking the Greek form of the name Celtæ it may have been from the Greek Celes, Celastra, a skiff, whence our English keel, supposing them to have been much engaged in maritime affairs. These then from their contiguity on the shores of the Channel to, and within sight

of, Britain were doubtless the first settlers, and possessors of the Island until driven northwards by fresh comers from the Continent, and subsequently found in Scotland by the Romans, and designated Caledonii, which is the same as their own word Gael, and to this day the gaelic language very likely in its original state may be heard in use there. Those whom Cæsar mentions *de Bello Gallico*, bk. 5, ch. 12, as being the aborigines were most likely these Celtæ, the later arrived inhabitants he says were Belgæ. Having taken our view of the principal agents in the civilization of Britain, I now propose to take into consideration the state of those subordinate to them, the slaves, some of whom we have already supposed to be called Arimaspians, and the origin of slavery, which we have seen even in our days fall so heavily on the blacks in particular. Now we might have supposed that the mark put on Cain, *Genesis*, ch. 4 v. 15, would have been one of a difference of colour, and in *Enoch*, ch. 84, v. 4, the black heifer is supposed to mean Cain; and at the deluge all Cain's descendants, Noah him-

self be it recollected was descended from Seth, may not have perished, but some may have survived in the persons of the wives of Noah's sons: or as it appears that there were two species of men created at the beginning, Genesis, ch. 1, v. 26, and again Genesis, ch. 2, v. 7, this last being Adam, or the man of Paradise, and as the race of Adam became intermixed after the fall with the first race, for so I understand what is said Genesis, ch. 6, v. 2, of the sons of God and the daughters of men, the hereditary taint of Cain's blood may have been continued by some of Noah's sons' wives being either descendants of Cain, or of the intermixture of the two original races, for we find in Enoch, ch. 88, v. 33, one of the cows, the black one, supposed to be intended for Ham, and then we find the origin of slavery in the tremendous curse pronounced upon Ham, Genesis, ch. 9, v. 25, in the person of his son Canaan, "A servant of servants shall he be unto his brethren"; a curse actually in existence to this very day, and destined to continue to be carried out to the end of time: Now these divine

dispensations were to be fulfilled by human agency, in which the Cymri doubtless performed a leading part. Now besides these hereditary bondsmen it is evident from Leviticus, ch. 25, v. 44, that there were other sorts of slaves among the Jews, and we know that slavery was prevalent among the Greeks, Romans and other nations, not only those taken prisoners of war were so treated, but also criminals of various descriptions, where their punishment ran short of death; and what else but slaves, more or less so, are our convicts, galley slaves, prisoners of all sorts, and those transported to Australia, or Siberia? In fact it has been doubted, and I think with reason, whether slavery is not rather humanity than the opposite, for if our negroes of the West Indies, the United States, South America, and the negro race of Ham in general were condemned by providence to be slaves, is not it better that they should be so and live, than be killed in their wars by their enemies, who, not having the means of providing food enough to keep them alive, sooner than be at the expense and trouble of doing so, and sooner

than re-endorse their own lives by restoring them to liberty, if they cannot sell them, and the opportunity of doing so would be an incentive to save life, prefer putting an end to them? But to return more immediately to our subject the extensive operations of the Cymri, whether plundering or trading expeditions by sea or by land, or mining operations, were principally carried on by the help of their slaves.

Now as on account of our insular position the Cymri and their slaves will naturally present themselves first to our minds in their maritime capacity, I shall begin by observing that the Vikingr of the old Northern Romance may have been only another name for them, or if the Vikingr were not Cymri, they may have been imitators of them, and mistaken the Berserkir or self-excitement, for the divine impulse, which would really have actuated the Cymri in fulfilling their destiny of living by the sword: as the galleys of the Romans, as the proas of the modern Malay Pirates are impelled by slaves, so were those of the Cymri, while to the masters were left the less laborious and more hon-

ourable operations of directing the course of, and fighting, their vessels, the nature of which I shall now endeavour to illustrate—our word boat, in old English buss, in Saxon buits, is the Greek word bursa, a hide, and, like the Welsh coracle of the present day, also from corium, a hide, one of the earliest modes of conveyance by water, was a wooden frame-work or basket-work with leather stretched over it, or a raft of logs made to carry additional burden by inflated skins attached to or under it. I have before alluded to the great importance of leather in the domestic economy of former times in shewing the value of the produce of the oak in preserving it, and the observation is equally applicable here, for their boat of leather, which in an uncivilized country was one of the principal means of procuring sustenance by fishing, of transport, and of trade, would be one of the first objects of their care. The hollowed trunk of a tree, which the Greeks called scaphe, in English skiff, and ship anciently spelt schip, would be another primitive means of navigation, but not so manageable, I think, or buoyant,

or transportable. Bye and bye the light hide-covered bark, as some savages would call it, for instead of leather they would use bark, would, as traffic and intercommunication increased, be displaced by the larger and stouter vessel of hewn timber. I shall beg leave to remark here, that when I speak of a hide-covered bark, I do not make a greater blunder than the person who calls a skiff of wood a boat, which word in reality means leather. This vessel of timber would be impelled, instead of by paddles, as its primary model might, by oars or sails, perhaps as many as twenty or thirty of the former on each side, with besides its rowers who might or might not be also fighting men, other warriors, passengers, or cargo. But, though as necessity required the size of the vessels was increased, it never seems to have reached anything like that of those of later times and the present day. The principal reasons of this were, I suppose, the scarcity of metal for nails, for though tree-nails, as the sailors call their wooden pins or nails used in ship-building might answer to a certain extent, yet the

larger sized vessels would require to give them sufficient strength iron and copper bolts and nails to fasten and hold their timbers together. Now these metals being so scarce then compared to what they are at the present day, and so much in demand for arms, armour, and domestic purposes, the probability would be that the ship, if built with them would have cost more in building than she would have been worth when built. Another reason may have been that the civilization of the world being concentrated in those days round the shores of the Mediterranean, a lake only as it were in extent compared with the Atlantic and Pacific oceans, they did not require such large vessels then, as they did to traverse the Atlantic after the discovery of America by Columbus, or to reach India round the Cape of Good Hope, or circumnavigate the Globe. A third and I think not the least reason was the scarcity on account of the expense of making of a proper material for sails; for most of their linen being made either by hand or the simplest form of handlooms, nothing

like our complicated system of machinery for spinning and weaving being then known, leather must have been, as I have before observed, the usual material of the dress of the lower classes. Now as leather was not of a sufficiently pliable nature to make sails of, the quantity of canvass carried by each vessel could have been but small, and I think the smaller class of boats must have been contented with sails of matting where they had any at all. Besides in the Mediterranean the tides being of very little strength compared to those of the ocean, they could make sufficient way for their purposes with the oars only. But though leather would not answer for sails it did for cables and ropes; I have seen cables made of strips of deer-hide in dockyards, which they say are very elastic and durable, and the passage in the New Testament, Mark, ch. 10, v. 25, "It is easier for a camel to go through the eye of a needle," and where it is allowed that for the word camel we should read cable, is easily understood if we suppose the cable to be made of camel's-hide. Now allowing our suppo-

sition of the use of sails being limited on account of the scarcity and expense of canvass to be true, and taking into consideration the comparative inutility of sails in the Mediterranean, and that when outside the Pillars of Hercules, as the Rock of Gibraltar was supposed to be called, and in the Atlantic, they had the advantage of the tides to drift aided by their oars along the coast, which seems to have been their usual custom, dropping anchor when the tide turned against them till it returned in their favour, it is easy to imagine, particularly in these days of steam, that their voyages must have been tedious, for the power of oars was rather limited in its application. The higher the oar from the water the heavier it must have been, and if carried beyond a certain height unmanageable, and the lower oars in which the strength of the ship lay would be very difficult to pull with the sea running at all high, besides the chance of the portholes through which they were worked, admitting the water. A great many opinions have been broached as to the arrangement of the rowers

on board, some have supposed that in the triremes and quadriremes they were placed in three or four rows one above the other, some that their ranks ascended in the manner of a flight of steps sloping upwards, some that they rowed sitting, some standing. I shall add another, as far as I know not suggested by anyone else, that the triremes and quadriremes were so called from having three and four men to each oar, and it may have been possible even that the trireme sometimes was of greater power than the quadrireme, for calculating the latter by the number of men on each seat, if the trireme worked three men, (whence may have been its name,) to each oar, for the two oars, one on each side, could not well be worked by three men only, there would be six men on each seat, but in the quadrireme, if there were only two men to each oar, there would then be four on each seat, which might entitle it to its appellation. We sometimes pull two men on one seat, one man to each oar, and then it is called pulling double-banked. I have already mentioned that the objection to the use of

leather for sails in the larger class of vessels would be on account of its non-pliability, add to this its weight, but on the smaller sized craft it may have been formerly used, as appears likely, if the old term *carbasus* applied to a canvass sail originally meant in Greek, things made of leather or hair, which material may also have been brought into use for sails—that they used the compass I have elsewhere shown from Homer, *Odyssey*, bk. 8, c. 556, and I think it a curious proof of the enterprise of the Cymri in conjunction with other nations and the Greeks in particular, that the name for a boat among the Malays, and the other Islanders of the Eastern Archipelago, and Pacific Ocean should still be *prahu* or *proa*, identical with the Greek *prora*, whence our *proa*. Nor were their vessels on account of their inferiority in size to ours without other advantages than that of being easily managed by oars for they were thus enabled to approach closer to the shore in case of danger, or to load and unload; for allowing their boats to draw five or six feet of water and the average rise of the tide to be eight

or ten feet, if they then ran ashore in a storm, those who could not swim had a better chance of escape, and it gave them greater facility in landing and trading along shore. Virgil continually mentions the practice of what we should call beaching their boats, *Æneid*, bk. 1, ch. 573, and bk. 6, ch. 902, but it seems to me that for the sake of embellishing his poem he introduced into it as the common practice on the shores of the Mediterranean, where the tides, where there were any, were of little consequence, what was rather peculiar to those of the Atlantic or other oceans, where the difference between the extremes of high and low tide was great. On these last a vessel run ashore at high water would be unloaded at low, and then if there was occasion to pull her up higher in the event of a coming storm or for repairs, they would have an opportunity of putting rollers under her to facilitate her progress. For though the ships were not so large in general even as our coasters, and rather I should think resembling our Thames barges, or nearly flat-bottomed Dutchmen, and aver-

aging perhaps between one and two hundred tons burthen, the difficulty of hauling them up must have been very great, and the strength of their crews alone seldom equal to it. Now after this attempt to give some idea of the boats and their equipments we return to the crews by whom under the superintendence of their masters they were worked, namely the slaves, and these I divide into two classes, one the negro race or descendants of Ham and Canaan, destined by Providence to these sorts of occupation, and the other prisoners of war and malefactors. For it is generally allowed that the negro is too susceptible of cold to do well except in the warm climates, and hence it is probable that however useful he might be in the Mediterranean, and for the summer voyages, and I think they would mostly be performed at that season, to Britain, yet for their winter voyages and stay in the country they would require slaves of a hardier description, who would constitute the other class. On land also the Cymri must have found slaves very useful, for as on board ship it appears the masters did most of the fighting, so

also would they on land, and it was the duty of the slave to bear the arms and armour of his master till the enemy was near, so that he might go fresh into battle under their weight; thus the knights of the middle ages had attendants with similar duties, and our countrymen in India now have attendants in number similar to take care of their horses, cookery, and do other domestic duties, which formerly fell to the lot of the slaves.

The labour of working the mines arduous as it is at the present day with all the improvements of modern science in machinery tending to alleviate it, and make those engaged in it more comfortable, must have been infinitely worse at that early period, and of course fallen to the lot of the slaves not of the masters; and even with all this command of labour mines could only be worked in naturally favourable situations. Where the steam-engine now keeps the deepest shafts free from the water which permeates the earth in such abundance human labour would have been of comparatively little avail, though it might have sufficed where a natural fall could have been obtained whereby

to drain them, or where the ore of tin or gold lay scattered near the surface, or brought down by and diffused in small particles in the streams, as we hear the gold is in California at present, and similar to the hardships undergone by those in search of it must have been those of the slaves of the Cymri.

CHAPTER IV.

But however little trustworthy the British records of their line of kings may be as a whole it may not be uninteresting to try and get a few glimpses of truth here and there in the long list of them. Now as we have established the fact of abbreviation being used in the origin of the word Thames in speaking, so in writing we find it also used in the name Ferrex, which is clearly Fergus rex, Fergus being a very common name in the Scotch royal line. Lear may be supposed to be of Ligurian descent, or from the river Liger, the Loire, in France. Lud we have before spoken of as evidently of Lydian origin. The Por in Por rex, and Pir another ancient king's name, I find considerable difficulty with, but they may be identical with the name Pyrrhus, in Greek purros, red; so also may

the Rhud in the first syllable of Rhudhudibras, be allied to the Latin ruber, red; and all three names may be significative of their Idumean descent, the word Edom we have already said meaning red. The Rhud again prefixed to Hudibras may be significative of royalty, as the Gaelic, rìgh, Latin, rex, Cornish and Spanish, ruy, Welsh, rhys. That Rhud is only a prefix is evident from the name being written sometimes with, sometimes without it, and the remainder of the name I fancied I had detected in the name Mandubratius afterwards mentioned by Cæsar, de bello Gallico, bk. 5, ch. 20. Now this Mandubratius was clearly of royal extraction, being the son of Immanuentius one of their kings, and may have derived his name from one of his ancestors, who had been formerly king. The first syllable Man we find in the fathers name too, and the two first in that of Cartismandua subsequently. Now the Man means either descended from as Mc in McDonald, or anything great as with Gog compare Magog, with Rajah, Maharajah in the Eastern languages, in Latin magnus, magus, in the

Chinese, which through the Tartar and Scythian would be allied to the Cymric, I had thought of mandarin, but this is said to be Portuguese, or to go further still, in the Peruvian Manco Capac. It may then therefore be considered as merely a prefix like the Rhud before mentioned in Rhudhudibras, and in this last word the remaining Dubras pronounced as the Welsh would do it would be identical with the dubratius with the Latin termination ius in Mandubratius, and the last syllable of Cartismandua with the addition of the Man, and might be nothing more than an abbreviation of the old Latin word induperator for imperator, Emperor. In fact it seems to me such a jumble of hereditary and official names as one would expect to find prevalent among a race of uncivilized barbarians, among whom few being able to read and write there could consequently be no fixed standard of pronunciation, where the Eastern Arabic of the Cymri was confounded with the western Celtic of the Gauls, while to these were superadded in their turn the Greek and Latin, and to make confusion worse con-

founded the negligence, not uncombined with ignorance and wanton fiction and exaggeration of the old Chroniclers. Should the reader not be satisfied with my observations on these last names he may prefer deducing them from the name of the town Dubris, generally supposed to be Dover, which is evidently the Latin form of the old British *dwr*, abbreviated from the Greek, *‘udor*, and identical with the Arabic *dor*, springs of water, and, as I have before observed that it seems to me that Lugotorix derived his name from the town of London, so he may suppose Dubratius to have been so called from being the principal man of Dover, or of a tribe deriving its name from being in the neighbourhood of that locality ; or he may compare it with the Welsh *Madoc*, or think the Celtic, *dhu*, dark is a component part of these names, but we find the field of conjecture so extensive that we must reconsign these shadows of a name to the obscure depths of that History, from which we have evoked them, and leave them to give others their due share.

The *Gor* in *Gorboduc*, which is identical

with the first syllable of Vortigern, sometimes written Guortigern, which is the Gaelic Tigernach, master, with the prefix, is the ancient British implying nobility, and seems to me like Rhud and Man to be merely a prefix ; I had thought the duc at the end of Gorboduc was an affix, and the Latin dux, a leader, but I also think it possible that, supposing the name may be applicable either to the male or female, by Boduc may be meant the Boudicea, also written Boadicea and Bonduca, of Tacitus, Annals, lib. 14, c. 31, a Latin termination being given to the name euphoniæ gratia, or if this be not the case there still remains the possibility of Boudicea being a descendant of Gorboduc. But there seems to me strong evidence of a good deal of fiction being mixed up with fact in the insertion of the name Bladud, said to have been king of, and to have built Bath. Now Bladud is evidently derived from the Latin balneum, as is also the name Bath, that city being so celebrated for its tepid and mineral waters for drinking and bathing in, so that if there were such a person as Bladud, the probabilities are that

he took his name from the town, not the town from him, and in their attempting to establish too high an antiquity for their line of kings, they have defeated their own object; nor is this case without parallel in modern times, for Dugdale in his mention of our town of Birmingham says with as little truth I think that the town was so called from the ancient family of that name, not the family from the town.

But the name of Coillus is the first prior to the Cassivellaunus mentioned by Julius Cæsar, on which we can fix as real with the greatest certainty, for the same name, though of course not of the same person, but probably of one of the same family, is found in Tacitus, Agricola, c. 14, under the form of Cogidunus, who is spoken of by him as being a contemporary of his. If then the tradition was true that Helena the mother of Constantine was the daughter of Coillus, a British prince, this Cogidunus may have been one of her ancestors. The origin of the name I take it was the fact that the person who was known by it was an Edomite settled at the Ictis, which we have shown

to be St. Michael's mount, commonly in Cornwall called the Mount, which in Arabic would be koh, and who from the place being the centre of a great trade, and he from being at the head of it being a man of great influence, was thence called Coillus, that is, of the Mount, which designation he transmitted to his descendants. In the old Eastern fictions of the Arabian Nights and elsewhere a prominent part is assigned to the man of the mountain, and though generally supposed to have been one of the sect of the Assassins, the truth may be that the first of that designation was so called from the Cornish Mount, so widely known by fame as a great depot of the trade, and source of the riches of these Arabs and those concerned with them, but the situation of which supposed to be mysteriously concealed was in fact only so owing to the inferior skill and daring in navigation of other nations as compared with these Arabs.

From their kings our next step will be to those nearly if not quite equal to them in power, the Druids. That the British Druids were so much superior in know-

ledge to the Gallic, that the latter borrowed, as we have already stated on the authority of Cæsar, their mysteries from the former is, I should think owing to the superior information the former acquired from their intercourse with the Cymri. Their name, among the various other reasons for which it was supposed to have been given to them, I am still most inclined to attribute to that of the oak, in British *derw*, in Greek, *drus*,—for as we have already seen the value of the produce of that tree in galls, acorn-cups and bark, I think they encouraged the idea of the sanctity of the oak and the mistletoe connected with it in order to secure to themselves the profits to be derived from the tree. Next to this nominal distinction I am inclined to think that the chief point on which they were distinguished from the rest of the nation was their capability of reading and writing, by which sources of knowledge were opened to them, from which the majority were debarred, and those who considering the spread of education at the present day may

think this view of things unreasonable, I would remind that even so lately as the period of the signing Magna Charta many of the highest persons in this realm could not even sign their own names, as appears from the use of marks after their seals, and their getting other people to add their names for them. This knowledge also constituted the bond which connected them with other nations; and we now proceed to consider their ideas on the subject of religion of which they were also the ministers, and which in their barbarous state may well be imagined to have been of the most primitive kind. Now assuming the principles of religion in the absence of the knowledge of the true God to have been, arguing from the more to the less material, for this must be the progress from the material towards the spiritual, from the palpable visible and sensible to the visible and sensible, thence to the sensible and invisible, whence to the invisible, yet still sensible to the mind at least, of four kinds, based on the ideas of earth, water, fire and air; to begin with the earth. The

savage, though he may never have heard that Adam was created from the dust of the earth, yet when he saw the bodies of his forefathers return in the course of time, to that element "their kindred dust," may have arrived at the conclusion that he originated from it, therefore would but return to the state from whence he came. Hence if he could not form from knowledge imparted to him any idea of any thing superior to himself, owing to his mental being limited to his bodily powers, he would venerate the ground of which he had been and was again to be a part, conveying to him too as compared to himself such ideas of immensity and bounty in producing that which was necessary for his simple mode of living, as corn, animals, not without what he might view in the light of luxuries, such as fruit, and clothing and materials for houses in trees. Now what terms did he use to express this divinity? I have before alluded to the Celtic word Man, in Mandubratius, &c., as expressed something pre-eminent, in those cases it would indicate hero-worship, here simple Divinity. It is

very certain however extraordinary it may appear at first sight, that while some nations pronounced words as they wrote them, from right to left, as the Hebrews, other nations pronounced the same words as they wrote and we write, from left to right, and exactly the reverse of the other. Now take the word Man, Drummond Origines, bk. 4, ch. 12, makes Man in the old Egyptian mean the Sun ; I should rather prefer viewing it as the Hebrew Adam, Adamah, which means earth or red earth, reversed ; or else take it as it stands, the points or vowels omitted as was usual in writing, Dm with an affix to give it a more definite sound, would be significative of something, as Adam was in Paradise, superior to the race of ordinary men, that is of divinity. This would account for the origin of the word Man, and in addition to what I have already said of it. I would here compare with it to shew its wide-spread use the Greek Demeter for Ceres, which is identical with Ge-meter, or earth-mother, and may be written D'meter like the Latin mater, mother, and I think we find it even in the

North American Indian word for a spirit, Manitou, for from the Cymri to the Scythian, and thence through the Tartars, if not the Chinese, the use of the term may have passed eastward into America. We find it in the Persian magus, and Ahriman, who as the God of evil was supposed to represent the body or matter in contradistinction to spirit, and viewing the earth in connection with the body as the most material part of creation this would go far towards supporting our theory of the word Man signifying earth.

Taking the next principle of water into consideration we may suppose the savage when contemplating the continual motion of a spring of water, to have imagined the "great first Cause" of its action, of time and eternity, and of his own life to be one and the same, comparing its self-acting powers with those which actuated his own frame, the motion of its waters with that of the blood circulating within himself; or else he may have compared the flux and reflux of the ocean tide at greater intervals to the action and reaction of the blood or of the

air in connection with it drawn in or given out at each inspiration or expiration acting upon and causing the motion of that blood at less intervals, of time ; and after all, allowing the circulation of the blood to be only partial and through the arteries, there still remains to be explained its action in the veins, where if the veins have ends, the blood cannot be said to circulate, for that one thing should circulate in another it is necessary that the one thing in which the other circulates should have no end to it. That some such notions prevailed among the ancients is evident from their personifying and deifying the sea ; nor would it have escaped their observation that the greater height and lowness of the tides caused by the changes of the moon, and those changes also, coincided, though not in the periods, yet in the length of the intervals of the periods, of their return with that of the custom of women, Genesis, ch. 31, v. 35. When the savage viewed the sun and moon in motion and the stars, and the lightning, as representing the principle of fire, he may have attributed his existence

to them, as higher and more worthy objects of veneration than those immediately around him, and from their less material nature claiming a higher rank in the scale of creation: or the intellect of the barbarian may have raised itself a step higher and among the viewless forms of air imagined an invisible Creator "walking on the wings of the wind," and have heard his voice in the thunder, and felt him in the breeze with a nearer approach to truth than he was aware of. For the Hebrew *ruach*, spirit, means also wind, and the Greek *pneuma*, spirit, is so rendered also, although *anemos* is the proper term for it; *pneuma* may certainly be a personification of the wind, but if it is, it is something more than it. Our inward man both now and in a future state is 1 Cor. ch. 15, v. 44, spoken of as a spiritual body, or body of wind, as some might render it, and as the earth is of our natural body, so the air or wind may be the principal element in the composition of that spiritual body, Genesis, ch. 2, v. 7; but is it its vital principle, and will it be?—for every thing must be or be composed of

something, so also our mind, though it is not in our power to discern the more subtle elements of creation; when we talk of nothing we talk nonsense, we cannot form an idea of nothing, the term is expressive of ignorance; however enough of things beyond our comprehension, I am inclined to class the wind or air among the Apostle's "beggarly elements", Galatians, ch. 4, v. 9. These four then being their principal ideas of divinity drawn from the powers of nature, to them may be added the reproductive principle typified in the God of love, and the pleasure they felt in the courage that animated them in defending their own persons and their just rights of property in the God of war, while to other inferior deities were ascribed the good or ill success which attended them in the chase, trade, and their other occupations. As we have already made some remarks on the probable cause of the sanctity attached to the oak, so now let us consider the nature of the mistletoe sometimes attached to it, but oftener to the apple and other trees. The plant itself is certainly remarkable

inasmuch as it springs from the branch of a tree, where probably from the viscous nature of its seed, and through the instrumentality of some bird, perhaps our missel-thrush, it has attached itself, and is unconnected with the ground. The ancients attached magical properties to a great many roots, generally I suppose from their medicinal properties as they might to the rhubarb, witness Leah's mandrakes, Genesis, ch. 30, v. 14, which may have been truffles, and Homer's Moly, Odyssey, bk. 10, but this plant, setting apart its connection with the oak, appears to have been marked out solely on account of its peculiarity of growth, unless it were intended to represent the tree of the knowledge of good and evil in Paradise, or the Branch of Zechariah, ch. 3, v. 8. Virgil, and the Romans made no scruple of borrowing the divinities and rites of all the nations conquered by them, mentions it clearly in the *Æneid*, bk. 6, l. 136, as a branch of a golden colour in its leaves, and flexible stalk, concealed in a shady tree, and then compares it to the viscus growing in his own country, l. 205, with which it was identical in fact; from his

mentioning two doves in connection with it he seems to me to allude to the olive branch brought back to Noah by the dove after the deluge, and the Druids may also have wished to commemorate by it this fact among others. What the ancient British name for the plant was I know not, our word mistletoe seems to me to mean the mystery-plant. But in these as in most other religious ceremonies, the fact was no doubt that the more mystery the less knowledge, which the Druids cared little for as long as by means of them they could manage to levy extensive contributions on those who were fools enough to be humbugged by them. Still they may have had some knowledge of the contents of the antediluvian Book of Enoch, of the Jewish scriptures ; they may have looked forward, and taught others to do the same, to the time when the prophecy, "He shall bruise thy head, and thou shalt bruise his heel," Genesis, ch. 3, v. 15, was to be fulfilled by the Messiah, when the Star came out of Jacob, and the Sceptre out of Israel, Numbers, ch. 24, v. 17 ;—they may have explained the promise expressed in the rain-bow, but had there been any particular

manifest interposition of Providence among them, it must have reached our times by tradition or record. Their system of human sacrifice may have originated in the intended sacrifice by Abraham of his Son, or the custom of the heathen of giving their seed to Moloch, forbidden, Leviticus, ch. 20, v. 2, and mentioned as done by Manasseh, 2 Kings, ch. 21, v. 6. By this may be meant I think a very common practice among savages of procuring abortion, and also of otherwise destroying their infant children to save the trouble of rearing them. They might have burnt the bodies afterwards, as was a common practice, though Cæsar says they burnt people alive in Gaul, bk. 6, ch. 15, whence they may have done the same thing in Britain. But where the Druids really made themselves useful was in recording the events, and the times and seasons of the year. The period of day succeeding day and night night may have been sufficient for most ordinary purposes, but the longer spaces of months distinguished by the changes of the moon must have been the greater periods by which they marked the lapse of time in more uncivilized

countries; and I suspect great blunders have been made, in the Chinese Annals for instance, by not applying this method, and calculating by months and not by years, that is to say, instead of so many years substituting so many months. Such observations as these changes of the moon would have been of great use to sailors also in warning them of the changes of tide and weather consequent on them. Perhaps the Druids with the assistance of their Cymric visitors may even have managed to calculate the time of an eclipse. Cæsar says they studied the motion of the stars; they may have conjectured the shape of the earth was somewhat circular by seeing the sun rise in the East, set in the West, and rise on its return in the East again, whence they would have argued that in the meanwhile it had gone round the earth. They appear also to have acted as the judicial council of the nation, and to have been held by it in the greatest respect.

CHAPTER V.

Cæsar, glad of any opportunity of finding employment for the spirit of enterprise which possessed him, and encouraging a similar one in his army, so as gradually to adapt them to his ambitious purposes, having reduced his province of Gaul to a sufficient state of submission and tranquillity, and overawed the neighbouring Germans by his passage of the Rhine, turned his attention to Britain because he had heard that the Gauls in their struggles against the Romans had derived material assistance from that quarter. For not only would the warlike spirits of that country be glad to assist their neighbours against an enemy who might attack them next, but the commerce carried on by the nations we have hitherto been considering must have caused an influx into Britain of wealth sufficient, if properly

applied to enable them not only to, act on the defensive, but also to take an offensive, part against the Romans. We have already spoken of the stream of commerce with Britain as flowing in two channels, the one by sea round through the straits of Gibraltar, the other by land from the nearest point of Gaul down the banks of the Rhone. The first of these the Romans, however powerful by land, being far less so by sea, could never have gained such a complete control over, as they did over the second by gaining possession of Gaul, but by stopping this second to any extent they chose, they were the cause of a third being opened, that from Leyden at the mouth of the Rhine up that river, and then across to and down the Danube, and it was to keep this third channel of traffic open that the nations on and beyond those rivers struggled to maintain their ground against the Romans with such success that the boundaries of the Roman Empire never for any length of time or to any extent exceeded the line of demarcation drawn by those rivers. At Britain then as the fountain head of these streams of com-

merce, and consequent wealth, which might be employed against him it was that Cæsar determined to strike a decisive blow. At the latter end of the summer, A. C. 55, he according to his own account, *de bello Gallico*, bk. 4, c. 20, assembled in the state of the Morini, somewhere, as it is described as the nearest point to Britain, near the present town of Calais, ships enough to carry two legions. Now as the force of the legion was generally in foot above six thousand, and the proportion of horse to each legion about seven hundred, this would constitute a force of about fourteen thousand men. He mentions his impressing eighty burthen-carrying or merchant ships which are generally supposed to have conveyed these men, and the number nearly two hundred men including the crew would be what it would appear probable each ship would carry, for he subsequently, bk. 4, c. 37, 38, mentions two ships as having three hundred soldiers between them: I read it otherwise, that he collected the eighty merchantmen, and besides these other vessels to carry the men, for he would want the merchantmen to carry a

certain quantity of provisions, and the leather tents, as bk. 3, 29, and other heavy baggage of his army, and my view is right as appears by his saying incidentally, bk. 4, c. 29, and as if to make up for the omission here, when mentioning the long ships, that in them he had transported his army. A smaller squadron of vessels at another harbour about eight miles off he destined for his cavalry. These from the number of the vessels which was eighteen may have been two-thirds of them dismounted, and would if they had ever reached Britain have taken their chance of finding horses there. For horses take up a good deal of room on board ship, if below they would have been in the way of the rowers, or supposing the merchantmen to have been usually sailing vessels occasionally assisted by what we call sweeps, while the long ships were more particularly intended by their length for rowing and fighting, if the horses had been on deck they would have rendered her top-heavy, which difficulty would not have been obviated by some of them being put below also. Having reached the opposite shore under the

high cliffs of Dover, and finding it commanded by them, and the enemy assembled in considerable force, and thinking it a place not suitable, if he landed, to draw up his army in proper array, he ran up the coast about eight miles, which brought him to the more level part of the coast where Deal now stands. The Britons opposed the landing, and their cavalry being on horseback in shallow, while the Romans further from the shore were on foot in deep water, gave them at first considerable advantage heightened by the impression made on the Romans by the strange sight and attack of their war-chariots. Encouraged at length by the good example of the standard-bearer of the tenth legion the Romans succeeded in gaining a firm footing on land, and driving off the enemy, but could not improve their advantage for want of cavalry to follow them up. This force it appears lay at first at a harbour about eight miles further up the coast, and the distance between the two harbours seems to me about the lee-way their clumsily constructed vessels might have been supposed to make in the twenty-one

miles from Calais to Dover ; for with the tide ebbing to the westward and flowing to the eastward a vessel leaving Calais for Dover with the flood tide would constantly be carried up to Deal, which lay as far above Dover, as the port Cæsar calls the further one here above Calais, if we suppose that to be the one he calls the upper one, and I think it was so called as being above the Portius Itius, and then she would drop down to Dover with the ebb ; and on the other hand a vessel leaving Deal with the ebb tide for the further port would be carried down to Calais, and then run along up the coast to the other harbour ; or they might gain a sufficient angle by running up or down the coast first before they struck across on a slanting course. To return to the cavalry they eventually started about five days after the other troops from the same harbour, but on nearing the British coast a storm arose when some of the ships were driven back, but others having succeeded in casting anchor on this side of the channel being nearly filled with water from the anchors during the storm drawing their

bows under water they were obliged to weigh them and return. Add to this disaster a very high spring-tide which they had not calculated upon filled some of Cæsar's ships which had been beached, a storm damaged others afloat, provisions ran scarce, and as they had to winter in Gaul, they had provided no winter stock for a stay where they were. The Britons considering these difficulties under which the Romans laboured broke off all the treaties they had entered into with them, and renewed their attacks. But they were again beaten off effectually, in which affair Cæsar was much assisted by a body of cavalry numbering thirty only, which one of his allies had luckily brought, for the heavy armed Roman foot-soldier could not pursue with any chance of catching them the British chariots and cavalry, and infantry either with light armour of leather, or none at all. Cæsar however in spite of all his difficulties ultimately succeeded in repairing his ships and reaching Gaul again with his army in safety.

In the ensuing year Cæsar having had a

great number of vessels prepared for the purpose leaves the Portus Itius, supposed to be Boulogne or some harbour near it, with above eight hundred vessels containing five legions, which with the cavalry attached to them would amount to about thirty five thousand men, and two thousand Gallic horse, nor did the natives dare oppose the landing of this large force, which was effected on the same spot as on the former occasion. On his advance about twelve miles into the country to the river Stour, he found the enemy in some force, but effected a passage, and drove them off, and also out of a rude fortification of trees they had felled, and which they endeavoured to make a stand in; but he was then obliged to return to his ships which being left afloat had been almost all damaged by a storm. Having, to prevent a repetition of this disaster, beached them all, and protected them by a fortification, he returned the same way, and finds the enemy re-assembled under the command of Cassivellaunus. This leader was so called as being the Chief of Cassii, whose name and that of their prin-

cipal town appears to be still extant in the present Cashiobury, near Watford in Hertfordshire. Cæsar speaks of his territories as being on the River Thames, and about eighty miles from the Sea, by which he means not from the mouth of that river, but from the place where he landed, Deal. Now this would bring his territories down as far as Richmond, a place which as the highest point to which the tide runs, would be of great importance to an inland state for the purposes of commerce in having an easy communication by shipping with the sea. Cæsar finding Cassivellaunus could not make head against him determined to carry the war into his territories, and proceeding I should think in the direction of Maidstone towards the head waters of the Medway on account of the difficulty of crossing it lower down, for the tide formerly ran up to that town, and not being able at all events from his ships not accompanying him round by water to cross the Thames below Richmond, he continued his march towards a ford of which he had been informed somewhere above that point. Now

to one looking at the line of hills which runs eastwardly from the Hog's back at Guildford towards the Thames, and from the Leith hill range towards the mouth of that river, it might appear that the vallies by which Cæsar approached that part of the river above Richmond would have been either of the river Darent, by way of Croydon, or by Reigate, Dorking, and Leatherhead. I think he would have kept along the vallies in order to be near a supply of water for such a large army as he led, while at the same time he would have avoided the hills for fear of getting entangled among them, and the woods with which they might have been crowned, and giving the enemy who were more at home there an advantage in that respect. The valley of the Darent would it seems to me have taken him too much to the north, so also the route through the hills by Croydon, though to one looking from the hills above Chertsey, there is a wide valley before him extending between the Norwood hills and those above Croydon to this latter place and beyond that to the Darent towards the

mouth of that river ; and I prefer supposing that from the head-waters of the Medway he crossed to those of the Mole, and then by Reigate, Dorking and Leatherhead reached the Thames above Kingston between that town and Chertsey, for this would be about the point where the tracks, for they would not be worthy of the name of road, which led from the capital of the Cassii to the south coast by the valley of Guildford, and from London the capital of the Trinobantes to Salisbury and the western parts of England, intersected one another. Cæsar says there was only one ford it could be crossed at on foot thereabouts, and in considering the position of this ford we must bear in mind that the river in those days resembled very little the river now, dammed up as it is for the purposes of navigation and water-power for mills, but it rather resembled the Scotch rivers, which rise very high in winter, but in dry weather sink very low ; whereas the Thames now even at the very driest time appears to have a considerable quantity of water in it owing to its being stopped

back by locks and weirs. The most generally received opinion is that Cæsar crossed the Thames just above Walton Bridge in the first bend of the river at a place called Coway Stakes, and as I see no reason to differ from it I shall proceed to state the points in favour of it. Close to it lie Halliford and Shepperton, and within a mile or two of it Weybridge at the mouth of the river Wey, and Chertsey. The name Halliford, called higher up stream above Marlow, Harleyford, clearly indicates a ford at what I suppose to be the old British word hayle, a river, we find it in the Cornish name Hayle, Helston, and even in Hellespont, whence I think it originally meant the lower or tidal part of a river, from the Greek 'als, the sea, hence also the name of the Asiatic river Halys, the boundary of the Lydian Empire. Shepperton may certainly be the Shepherd's Town, but I think it more likely is the schippertown, or highest point to which ships or boats of any size could then have ascended the river, and that on account of the very ford we now wish to

establish there; besides on Shepperton range, which extends from about Coway Stakes nearly to Chertsey Bridge a great many remains of very ancient arms and armour have been found indicating that warlike operations had been carried on on the spot. The name of Weybridge may be either from its being on the Wey, or both the river and the town may be so called from the Latin word vadum, a ford, for the mouth of the river is not far above the Coway ford, and the ford being probably as the point of intersection of several roads a place of great resort may well have imparted a name and distinction to many places in its vicinity. In the word Coway itself, the latter half seems to be identical with the name of the river Wey and vadum, and the former half may possibly indicate that it was a place at which a chariot, *covinus* in British, could pass, or it may be a more modern name given to it, merely implying that it was the way by which droves of cows and cattle reached London. I believe the Bosphorus to have been so called simply because herds of

oxen were made to swim across that strait from Europe to Asia, as they are from the Isle of Skye to the mainland of Scotland at this day; or the stakes, for very old stakes have been found at Coway Stakes, may have been placed to prevent cattle straying across the river, or being driven through it to evade payment of the tolls of a bridge or road. It has I believe already been supposed that the name of the town of Chertsey may have originated in that of Cæsar, and I think it not improbable, for consider the Russian form of his name Czar, omitting even the diphthong, or pronounce the word as the Romans may have pronounced it, not laying a stress upon and pronouncing the s like z, but like the c at the beginning of the word, and the C'sar, with the addition of the British eye, as in Eyot, an island with willows on it, from the Greek itea, a willow, may be the basis of the name. If this be not satisfactory, the word seems to me to exist also in the name of the river Cherwell, pronounced Charwell near Oxford, and also in the name of the French town Cherbourg, but I do not know

its meaning or origin, unless in the Greek chersos, mainland, as in Chersonesus, which implies an island, so to speak, attached to it, that is a peninsula; and Chertsey may have been formerly as now, a sort of island between two branches of the river Thames. Now Cæsar's forces having crossed the ford would have extended, outposts and all, from the ford to Chertsey, unless marching in very close order. But to return from the neighbourhood to the ford itself on his arrival there he found the enemy awaiting him on the other side of the river, and their bank was fortified with pointed stakes, and some were also in the bed of the river and under the surface of the water. These stakes may have run across the river or up and down stream; some have supposed and Cæsar appears to have done so too, that they were driven in by the Britons merely to stop his passage. I think part of those in the bank were, but it seems to me as pile-driving in the water is a very tedious business and requires some contrivance to effect it, that it is probable that the Britons, barbarians as they were, and occupied in

observing and accompanying Cæsar's movements would scarcely have had the foresight or time to do it. They may have calculated on stopping his progress long before he ever got so far into the country as that, they may never have thought that he had any intention of coming that way at all, so that all things considered I think the stakes in the bed of the river had been put there long before this, either as some suppose for the purposes of a fishing weir, or for that of a rude sort of bridge. I have already given my reasons for supposing a great traffic at this spot, and think the bridge may have been intended for foot passengers particularly during floods, and perhaps for pack horses also; much such a bridge in fact as Cæsar himself tells us, bk. 4, ch. 17, he threw over the Rhine in an expedition against the Germans just before his first expedition into this country, and as he tells us he cut his own bridge away, for he would have thrown away time and labour and money to no purpose to have drawn the piles out of the bed of the river again, so also may the Britons have

cut away theirs, and left the stumps standing under water. But there is no reason why it may not have served the purpose of a weir also for fish of all kinds, eels and salmon in particular. We still have eel traps or butts, generally called bucks, in every direction on the river, made, for the same reason why the Briton wore leather instead of linen would explain his want of nets, viz:—the want of material, the thread, to make them, of wicker work in wooden frames; and till lately as many can remember salmon also ran up the Thames, and even still occasionally but very rarely are they caught there, formerly no doubt there was great abundance as there is in the best Scotch rivers, but, alas! for the sportsman and fisherman the combined effects of steam and gas, the former disturbing and the latter poisoning its waters, have all but annihilated one of his finest amusements, but in Scotland where the salmon traps or cruives are still in use channels are marked out by stakes driven in and across the bed of the river to guide the fish to the traps, and intercept them in their upward and

downward progress from and to the sea. Such and for such purposes from Cæsar's description appear to me to be the rows of piles in the river, and supposing those on the bank as well as the others had not been placed there as a defence against him, it is not unlikely they had been put there before by one tribe as a defence against another, whose territories the river separated. But in spite of all these obstacles Cæsar's troops forced the passage the cavalry leading, and the infantry, some of them I should think, up to their necks in water ; this may be accounted for by supposing the ford to have been of some extent up and down stream, although he says there was only one ford, and that they crossed the water at several points at once of that ford ; where men were up to their necks, horses must have been swimming ; the tendency of the stake-fence in the river may have been by arresting the sand and gravel which would otherwise have been washed downwards, and by distributing the water, where not confined by high banks over a greater surface to have made the river above shal-

lower but below deeper. The Britons already intimidated by their previous defeats made off, and left Cæsar, though he had no powder to keep dry, to have his provisions brought over the water to him dry somehow or other, for he does not appear to have exercised his ingenuity here, as he did on the Rhine, in bridge building, or in repairing. If the men, as he describes them, had only their heads above water, they could not, supposing each man carried his own provisions usually, but there must have been some stores in reserve, have well carried them there, the horsemen could have carried little behind them, but he must have got possession of some native boats or constructed rafts to carry over the remainder. On Cæsar's passage of the Thames and subsequent progress the natives of the northern side seem to have thought it high time to conciliate such adventurous enemies, and the Trinobantes whose capital was London, and who were from their foreign relations and connections both by race and commercial transactions the most important state in the country, sent with many other

tribes ambassadors to sue for peace, which they obtained on condition of giving hostages and bringing in provisions. From this account it is clear that the chief town of the Trinobantes, afterwards called London by Tacitus, but then said by the old Chroniclers to be called Trinovantum, lay on the north bank of the Thames, had it been on the south side Cæsar would doubtless have marched on it at once. The general supposition is that it was called Trinovantum, as being a New Troy, *Troja nova*; Davies Gilbert, *History of Cornwall*, makes Trenowith in British mean New Town, and this I think was the origin of its old name, or else it may have been from Tre, a town, or high place, compounded with the Greek naus, a ship, meaning the highest point to which ships of the largest class could run up the river. On the information of these tribes, Cassivellaunus meanwhile hovering on the outskirts of his army with four thousand chariots after dismissing the rest of his forces, Cæsar proceeded in the direction of the stronghold of that chieftain, which we have already spoken of as Cashiobury,

and found it, as he had a previous post of the enemy, in a naturally strong position, and fortified with a ditch and rampart of earth or trees felled for that purpose, surrounded by woods and marshes, and I should say, though it might be rather an elevated spot, not without a spring of water within its enclosure. He attacked it on two points at once, drove the enemy out, killed a great many of them, and gained a great booty in cattle. Cassivellaunus' last attempt to carry on the war was by inciting the inhabitants of what we now call Kent to attack the Roman Ships left on the coast, but though they made an attempt on them, they were defeated in it, and the British Chief was reduced to the necessity of asking for peace which he obtained on condition of paying a certain tribute ; Cæsar returns safe to the continent with his army, and was so much engaged during the remainder of his life with his Civil, Spanish and African wars, as not to be able to return to Britain, nor were the Roman armies in Britain again till the reign of Claudius, A.D. 43, a period of nearly a century.

CHAPTER VI.

Having thus brought our sketch of the British as a nation down to the first dawn of historical light we shall by way of conclusion take somewhat into consideration their personal characteristics, and the nature of their country. To the blue eyes which distinguished the Celtic races from the dark eyed and dark haired inhabitants of the East I am inclined to think they added a darkish hair rather than the light coloured hair prevalent among the Germans and Saxons. No doubt the Cymri and their foreign successors intermixed a good deal with the natives, which might in some measure account for the hair being rather dark than otherwise. We have done the same thing in the East Indies, where our issue by the natives are termed half-caste. But for this dash of foreign blood the description of the persons of the Gauls might

have done for those of the Britons. Cæsar says in his time the Aborigines of the interior wore their hair very long, and also some on the upper lip. Now I can easily fancy this last, for even with our razors sharp as they are and good as their temper, still better must be the temper of the man, who, while he can shave the hair off his chin in comparatively a very short time, does not grumble at being detained so much longer by, and running so much more risk of cutting himself when he divests himself of, the smaller quantity of hair on his upper lip. The razor I suppose requires the finest description of steel, and how could the savage get it? I don't suppose he even had a pair of scissors as a substitute, nor would he be burthened with a mirror; his knife, if he were so rich as to possess one, used as it would be for all sorts of purposes, would avail him but little. A common practice among savages is to pluck out their hair where they want to get rid of it, but this is painful and then the hair grows again. They were clothed either in wild beasts' skins, or, what seems to me more probable, from their dyeing their bodies, simply in their own.

Else why dye themselves with woad, as they are said to have done, unless they wanted to somewhat disguise what might in this last case appear even to themselves barbarous as they were too great a simplicity of dress. The woad dye which is of a blue colour certainly in this changeable climate might assist in closing the pores of the skin against the wet and cold, but for this purpose grease would seem, and is used by all savages as, a more effectual protection. I dare say the truth was that when they made their appearance in Cæsar's presence they were wrapped up in skin dresses, which when they returned to their own homes among their own people they hung up in reserve for high days and holydays, and other such grand occasions as Cæsar's arrival; Much on the same principle as the Scotch often walk barefooted to church to save their shoes and stockings, which they carry in their hand, and when they arrive in the church yard they put on and keep on while in church. Besides the Britons may have had as many patterns of the woad-dye impressed on their bodies to distinguish the different tribes, as the Scotch clans have tartans. I have before had

occasion to make remarks on the scarcity of linen even amongst the more civilized nations. Their skins of beasts would be worn with the hair inside for greater warmth during winter, but outside during summer, if they wore anything at that season.

The habitations of the wandering tribes must have been like the tents of Cæsar's army, of skins also, but among the stationary tribes they ran up huts. Cæsar says there were a very great number of them, and an immense number of inhabitants. These huts would have mostly had walls of puddled clay, such as we see even now-a-days, covered with roofs of skins stretched over them, or with turves and long grass laid on sticks, for it seems, as they had little corn cultivated in the interior, they could not have had much straw. Timber and stone they could not have made much use of for want of proper tools to hew them.

Cæsar says their food was milk and flesh. The poets are very fond of describing the Aborigines of any country as living on what is generally supposed to be the acorn. Now the acorn in Southern climates may be more grateful to the palate than ours,

and when dressed than when raw, and how different our potato when dressed to what it is in a raw state ; I should rather understand by glans, the chestnut, which really is a most nourishing food and nuts in general ; and besides they must have had the roots of the artichoke, parsnip, carrot, turnip to store for winter provisions in the place of our potato. But their main dependence must have been, as Cæsar says, on flesh, and I think rather on that of the ox and cow, than of the sheep. The latter is the animal of a more advanced state of civilization, for as its wool was not in much request then for spinning, and it was an animal which required more protection from the wolves, and other wild animals with which the country abounded, the ox must have been preferred to it, being not only as occasion required a beast of burden, but also in its skin furnishing them with a more durable dress, and lastly the best article of food, while the cow supplied the wholesome nourishment of milk for their women and children and cheese. Then they must have had pigs and goats both

wild and tame and abundance of deer in the forests, and though Cæsar says the hare, with which we may class the rabbit, was forbidden food, as in Leviticus, c. xi, v. 5, 6, yet this may have been only among the Druidical caste, and the lower classes may have had no such scruples in eating them, as well as the goose and fowls which he says were forbidden also, but which were not among the Jews. But Cæsar says though they did not eat these animals and birds they reared them "*animi voluptatisque causâ*," that is for the sake of amusement or their courage, and pleasure, that is, sport. They may have hunted the hare, and preserved the fowls for cock-fighting, just as the Malays do cocks and quails now, for both these birds take up very little room, and would furnish them from their pugnacious disposition with some sort of amusement when on board ship, and not otherwise engaged. This I think may be his meaning, but view the goose in connexion with the fowl, the same reasoning will not include both birds, and I supposed that though they did not eat the birds, they might

have kept them for the eggs, particularly had the eggs been a provision which kept well for winter use, but they do not, so that the only reason I can think of for their not eating goose, is, that Britain having been a sort of dependancy of Gaul, when the Gauls and Britons in their first invasion of Italy gained possession of all Rome except the Capitol, this being saved by the cackling of a goose awakening the sentinels, the Gauls afterwards and the Britons with them and their posterity held the goose in abhorrence. However after all it may have been merely a fashion of theirs; our ancestors eat swan, heron, peacock, and thought them great dainties, we never or very rarely do, but our posterity may again at some future day. Then there was abundance of wild fowl and flying game with the fish of their rivers and surrounding seas for them to fall back on in times of scarcity. The British oyster in particular, coming from the beds at Sandwich, or some other place on the Kentish coast, mentioned by Juvenal, Sat. 4, l. 141, as famous, and other shell-

fish would have contributed greatly to their support; and any excess of all these over what was required for present consumption could be reserved for the future, when cured by smoking and the salt of excellent quality to be procured in great abundance from the native salt mines of Cheshire, and the salt-pans along the coast. When on the subject of oysters we might have alluded to our pearls, but though the pearl is generally connected with the oyster, ours are found in the fresh water muscle or clam, principally in the Scotch rivers though I have found the clam in the Thames, but not the pearl. The British are not so bright as the marine pearls, still ornamental; Suetonius taking up the idle gossip of his day repeats a ridiculous report that Cæsar's expedition was undertaken for the purpose of obtaining them. That there was little corn grown in the interior, as Cæsar says, I should think arose from the natives being principally engaged in rearing cattle, which they might exchange for corn grown in the neighbourhood of their large towns in the South, or imported from

abroad in exchange for the tin and copper which they exported. Besides milk the earliest sorts of beverage in use among the Britons were mead, beer, and spirits made at home, and wine and spirits imported from other countries. Mead or metheglin was an infusion of honey in water, the honey most probably derived from the wild bee of the forest; and before the general introduction of sugar honey must have been in common use as a sweetener for all kinds of food, whether eatable or drinkable. Saccharum or a species of cane-sugar is indeed mentioned by old writers, Pliny for instance, but honey, in a liquid state and they may have crystallized it also, must have been its usual substitute. It may possibly also have undergone some process of fermentation, like the more common and inferior beverage, beer. This which derives its name from bear or bere, an old name for barley, is the well known extract from malt, which is generally made of barley. The Latin name for it is cerevisia, apparently from ceres, corn, a liquor extracted from corn, the Welsh called

it cwrw, which may either mean the same thing, or a drink preserved in skin-bottles. The word bottle was originally identical with boat, as being made of skins of leather, in use among the Spaniards for holding wine to this day, and as spoken of in the New Testament, Matthew, ch. 9, v. 17; and cwrw may be from corium a hide. If the Britons had any wine it would have been imported from Gaul, for the vine has never been found to answer sufficiently well in the cold climate of this country to make good wine. Spirits may have been introduced by the Arabs, who are said to have been the first who practised distillation. They may possibly have made some from malt in this country, or else they brought them with them to exchange them and gold with the natives for their tin and copper; and, as in more modern times, to obtain by means of their intoxicating qualities an advantage for the civilized man over the savage in his dealings with him. We find no particular mention of them made, but beer and whisky being both made from malt, the

spirit may have been regarded as only a stronger species of, and gone under the name of beer, though it underwent a different process in the making, and it is possible to make beer almost as strong as spirits; in the same manner, the spirit made of wine, as brandy is, may have been called strong wine, spirits of wine, or simply wine. Whisky was formerly called usquebaugh, and this I take it is precisely the same as the modern French eau-de-vie, water of life, from the Greek *udor* water, as in Ouse, Isis, the names of rivers, compounded with the Gaelic *bheatha*, life, which seems very like the Greek *bios*, *bios*, and the Latin *vita*, life, pronounced as a Frenchman of the present day would pronounce it, and a Gaul of that day may have pronounced it, for it is impossible to say whether our pronunciation of the *i* in *vita*, as *ai*, or theirs as *ee*, is the ancient one.

So scarce was iron as we have remarked above, when alluding to their razors and knives that many of the most ancient swords were made of bronze or bell metal, a mix-

ture of copper and tin, which of course would not take such a fine edge as iron only, but on the other hand it was not so liable to rust, and answered the purpose of knocking the enemy down just as well as iron, which would not have been able to cut through the armour of thick leather then worn, and would have been rendered as blunt as the bronze by it. Sometimes the bronze may have been edged or pointed with iron. Prior to this arrows and axe-heads had been a good deal made of flint, but such rude weapons would I should think rather have been intended for the chase, where it would not have been of so much consequence if they missed their mark, as it would in battle. There is a small weapon called the celt found very often, which is of bronze, and seems to me to have sometimes answered the purpose of the ferule of our walking-stick. It generally has a small sort of handle on one side of it intended by passing a small thong of leather through it either to fasten it more firmly to the stick, or sling it to the girdle by. These celts would have

served also as javelin or spear heads. A man with two or three of these at his belt could cut a stick in any wood, and fit another up, if he lost one, without being at the trouble of carrying handles about with him; and in case of war he would require a longer handle to them for a spear to keep off the enemy's cavalry and chariots by planting the butt end of the spear handle against the ground, so our infantry now keep off cavalry with their bayonets, which they could not do with the shorter sword. Their shields were made of wicker work covered with leather, and their armour of leather also before the introduction of metal. I suppose the Roman common soldiers wore leather armour also, but the officers and cavalry metal armour, the latter not being so easily able to carry shields on account of their wanting their left hand to manage their horse properly; besides the superior expense of the metal over the leather, and its greater weight would have promoted the use of the latter in preference to the former.

Cæsar is rather particular in his descrip-

tion of their chariots which he calls *Esseda*, Tacitus, in the *Agricola*, c. 35, *Covinus*. They seem to have had two horses each harnessed to a pole between them. The Greeks and Trojans in the Trojan war appear to have used them, but not so much in the actual fight as the Britons, who charged cavalry with them, as well as foot. In fact it was principally to effect by the weight of the horses an opening in the enemy's ranks that they were used, but they were also of service in bringing the occupiers fresh into battle, carrying them out when wounded, and enabling them to effect a quicker retreat. They also carried a larger stock of javelins than could be borne by hand, and appear to have been often armed with scythes on the spokes of the wheels and ends of the axle-trees. I am inclined to think they were the common conveyances of the country, and when not doing duty as war-chariots were employed for agricultural purposes, and carrying timber and other things; and they would have attracted Cæsar's attention the more, if the Romans harnessed their

horses between shafts and so one before the other, but the British drove a pair abreast. From Livy, bk. 10, c. 28, we find that when the Gauls, with whom doubtless were Britons also, assisted the Samnites in their war against Rome, they had chariots of this description, and this was above two hundred years before this time.

The face of the country is generally supposed to have been nearly covered with wood, and it is in the nature of, I believe all indigenous trees to extend their species spontaneously by seeds and suckers. Cæsar's few words, as to the nature of it are it seems to me rather ambiguous; he says, "*materia cujusque generis, ut in Galliâ, est, præter fagum et abietem,*" literally timber of each sort, as in Gaul, there is besides beech and fir. But the *præter*, besides, may also be rendered except. Now make, which I think the best view, *præter* mean besides, then Cæsar particularly notices the existence of the beech of the first importance for fuel, and the fir for ship and other building, both in Gaul and Britain, and then passes over the others all in one general mention. Now render *præter*

except, it may imply either that there was no beech or fir in Gaul, or that there was none in Britain. Now rather than suppose that he left two points doubtful I would render præter, besides. Let us consider what may have been the facts of the case. Is it likely there were neither beech nor fir in Gaul? no, but it was more likely there were neither in Britain. Though the red beech is indigenous in Bucks, the white I think is not, though the Scotch fir, which is properly a pine, is in Scotland, the spruce fir may not have been in this country. Caesar may then have meant the white beech, or fagus, in Greek, pegasus, may be a sort of oak, quercus esculentus, and abies, the spruce fir in contradistinction to the pine; or though the trees existed in this country he may never have met with them on his route, or if he met with them, noticed them, or if he noticed them, writing from memory he may have forgotten them. Were the South Downs, Hants, Wilts, Bucks, Surrey and other downs and hills, the Chalk hills in particular which the beech affects wooded then? I have supposed few sheep, for that is the principal stock kept on them, the pasturage being

rather too short for the large cattle, kept in the Midland Counties, but there may have been considerable quantities on the more Southerly downs, and if the timber was once removed they would have prevented its regrowth, or if there never was any its springing up at all, or even were there no sheep, deer hares and rabbits are very destructive to young plants, and would have kept these parts bare as they now mostly are. The natives too might have cut the beech as coppice, which would account for Cæsar's remark on the look out as he was for timber only. But after all he may be too concise to be clear to us, however his idiomatic way of expressing himself might be to a Roman; or there may be some error of the transcriber, I do not see any in the punctuation, for I think it possible the præter with an æ diphthong may have differed from the præter with an œ. In the first case it would have been from prae, before, now if you put one thing before another viewing it locally, there would be two things, one besides the other, and so it would mean besides; but deriving proeter from pro, for, one thing would be considered

as substituted for another, and this last removed, and then it would mean except.

As population increased the timber being wanted for fuel would gradually disappear before them, and leave room for their flocks and herds to feed on the grass which would take its place. As long as there was this quantity of timber, they would not work the mines of coal, unless it could be got closer and with less trouble. The tin and copper of Cornwall and the iron of the Midland Counties and South Wales was all at first manufactured with fires of wood, and when that became scarce in the neighbourhood, it was brought from a distance having been first burnt into Charcoal to make it lighter of carriage. Iron as the most difficult to work of the three metals must have been the scarcest and most expensive, and the reason why we find so very few remains of it of ancient manufacture, compared to what we do of bronze, must of course be that being so liable to decay, while the bronze is not, there remains nothing of the iron where the bronze is almost unchanged, besides the iron on account of its scarcity would be ground down

and used up to the very last. The conjunction of the iron ore with the coal for working it would have been the chief reason for the Cymri settling in Wales, and its vicinity to the sea for transport would make it more valuable for exportation, as it would not require the expensive land conveyance it would out of the Midland Counties, besides its vicinity to Cornwall, where it is not improbable they were in the habit of doing what what they do now-a-days, conveying some of the tin and copper ore, when wood became scarce, to their Welsh coal furnaces, and then on their return sending back coals to Cornwall to use in the smelting furnaces there to extract the metal from ore there. Merchants always calculate on sending goods out what they can bring back as a return cargo, so the Gauls and other strangers would bring merchandise of all sorts, and load back with metal either extracted from, or in the raw state of, the ore. Cæsar indeed says "they use imported brass," this, as brass is a compound metal of copper and tin, or copper and zinc, does not prove that they did not smelt at home, though it seems to mean they did not amalgamate.

I should think it required no more art to amalgamate metals, and form alloys than it does to smelt, so that they did both at home, though perhaps not to a sufficient extent to supply the home demand. If he had heard of the Island Ictis, and knew very little about it, he may mean by the word imported only that it came round from there, or else from Wales, by sea, and he may possibly have been kept in the dark on the subject.

The pure stream tin and other metals most likely packed in bags made of whole sheep skins, in the same manner as the Siberian gold dust, for in this manner arose the fable of the golden fleece, may have been conveyed on pack horses, as Diodorus says was done through Gaul, and the reason for this must have been the badness of the roads, which were mere cattle-tracks, such as we often find in the Highlands now-a-days, I should think, till the Romans made a settlement in the Island, when one of the first objects of their care was to make a regular road, what they called a stratum, of broken stones in order to establish their rule over the Island more firmly by being able

to march their legions sooner to any point where rebellion might break out. And the badness of the roads may not have been the only motive for the use of pack-horses : the Celts were famous for their fondness for horses and skill in horsemanship, so much so that their name has been derived from the Greek keles a horse, and their principal strength may have lain in their cavalry. There is a Gaelic word still in use which bears a great resemblance to their name, and might throw some light on their pronunciation of it, this is the word shelty, a pony. From their fondness then for horses they were no doubt large breeders of them, and when they arrived at their journey's end made a practice of disposing not only of the burthens, but most of the horses also, unless they had occasion for them on their return, thus driving a profitable traffic in two ways at once.

Iron is so much more difficult to work than copper, as copper than tin, on account of the greater heat required, but it seems to me that the Briton knowing other nations had overcome the difficulty would never

have rested till he had done so too. The Romans, Greeks and other nations had been working iron and copper ever since the time of Tubal Cain the ancient Vulcan as well doubtless by melting it from the ore as by forging it when hot in its pure native state, in which the iron is extremely rare, only they did it on a very small scale compared to what we do.

The coal, and I think the black stone in the Caaba at Mecca may have been symbolical of the coal used by the Arabs here, where it lay near the surface would have been used, but the same objections to working it to any great depth in shafts except in naturally favourable situations would have existed that there did to the working of the mines of the metallic ore, namely, that with their rude machinery they could not have kept the mines clear of water. Few indeed are the monuments of these early periods to be traced on the face of the country. A few camps there are, and large barrows marking the sites of the burial of some chieftain of note, or those slain on the spot in some great battle,

and these are of uncertain date. Their simplicity has preserved them from their not being worth removing, had they been of stone they would long ago have been converted to other building purposes. Stonehenge and a few other Druidical monuments of the like nature still survive though in an imperfect state. There has been much discussion as to the means by which the masses of stone composing them were raised to their positions. Now even allowing they were not aware of the properties of the lever, which they must have been from its principle being brought into play, being a matter of every day occurrence, and of the properties of the block and pulley which they must have seen in use on board every vessel; it appeared to me some time since when considering the structure of the Egyptian Pyramids that masses of stone might be raised in this manner, suppose A, B, C, to be a triangle, or heap of earth to be thrown up near a stone to be raised, if B is the apex of the triangle, and the stone to be raised be at A, then placing a roller on B, and a rope fastened to the

stone with a basket at the other end of it just over B on the side B, C; I should accumulate in the basket one by one so many small stones, as in their aggregate weight should exceed the weight of the stone at A, which accordingly must rise. We save time and trouble and consequently expense by our machinery, but the ancients could do nearly, if not quite as much with a greater number of hands and simpler means though they required more time in their operations. These temples are generally regular circles one within the other, with the lines denoted by the magnetic power crossing the sun's track at right angles marked out at the four cardinal points, so as to give their religious ceremonies some pretensions to system, for want of something better.

We have already made some mention of Scotland in supposing the Gael and *Caledonii*, the g and c interchanged as in *Galli*, *Celtæ*, *Gomeraeg*, as if from *Gomer*, and *Cymri*, to be the same people, but then we have also to consider somewhat the *Scoti*, from whom the present name is derived,

who are generally supposed to have been originally Scythians. We have already supposed a connexion between the Scythians and Cymri, so that I think the Scoti were the Eastern element of the Scotch population, while the Gael were the Celtic or Western. Cæsar makes no separate mention of Scotland when he speaks of Britain, but includes it in his mention of eight hundred miles as the length of the side of the Island opposite Germany. • Ireland he mentions separately, and we think it right to make a few remarks on it, although both it and Scotland from their remoteness and deficiency in climate and metallic produce have little worthy of notice. The first mention made of Ireland may be in the *Argonautica*, l. 1186, attributed to Orpheus, but as to the authorship and antiquity of which there is much doubt. It is there and elsewhere called *Iernis*, evidently from the Gaelic, *iar*, the west, as being the westerly extremity, as was then supposed, of the world. The modern Irish claim a Milesian or Spanish origin, and no doubt vessels from the Mediterranean touching on the coasts of Spain

in their way brought many colonists and visitors. But as Ireland is visible from Snowdon, from the Isle of Man, the Mona by the way of Cæsar, the Mona of Tacitus is Anglesey, while the Isle of Man is from England, and also from the western parts of Scotland, whence the distance is only about twenty miles across, the probabilities are that Ireland derived its first inhabitants from Britain. I have elsewhere ventured on an opinion that the pillars of Hercules, generally supposed to be Gibraltar, were the basaltic Columns of the Giants' Causeway, and of Staffa and Iona. The round towers are I think of subsequent date to the times we treat of; and I shall only add here that however well "the first flower of the earth, and first gem of the sea" may from its situation claim the title of first, as the man at our "ultima Thule," the Lands' End does for his house, yet like his house, as by him, on like grounds, it may also be considered as the last, and last not only in situation. Cæsar makes the Britons bad enough, when he describes them as addicted to promiscuous intercourse, but Strabo, bk. 4, c. 5, supposes

the Irish infinitely worse, as addicted to incest and cannibalism ! so that I think as on account of these practices in former times, so on account of their bigotry and system of cold-blooded assassination at the present day none but themselves will deny that their proper place is where I put them at the

FINIS.

N O T E S
AND
EMENDATIONS.

Page 7.—for “the idea of a hill &c.” read, the idea of a valley implies that of a hill. For I think the idea of a plain intervenes between that of a hill and that of a valley, but not between that of a valley and that of a hill.

Page 10.—“elsewhere,” where the Author uses this expression he generally alludes to some privately printed papers of his.

Page 12.—for “them,” read, him.

Page 13.—after “sea snake,” insert, !; and after “Pacific,” read, or Atlantic.

Page 17.—omit “with regard to the Greeks themselves,” and for “their own,” read, the Latin and Greek.

Page 18.—after “West India Islands,” and, “misdescription by,” insert commas.

Page 22.—“Brigantes,” compare the Irish Brehon.

Page 23.—“Now this &c.” Milton must have been deceived also by supposing the name Trinovantum to be from Troja Nova.

Page 24.—after “open,” and “channels of,” insert commas.

Page 26.—“Lugdunum,” the ‘dun here is an abbreviation of the Latin oppidum, compare with Lugdunum Lutetia the ancient name of Paris quasi a Lud; and for “down the Rhone,” read, down the banks of the Rhone.

Page 27.—for “tracked,” read, trekhed? and omit “although there was no towing path.”

Page 34.—“gall nuts,” are they a species of oak-apple? and after “in dyeing,” read, and in making ink. Cæsar, de Bel. Gal., bk. v. c. 11, “scribit Labieno,” writes, i.e. with ink on parchment of a paper of a species of papyrus, hence paper, a flag or rush, such as we see the Burmese use.

Page 36.—for “or,” read, for.

Page 38.—after “Romans,” read, were, after “Pirates are,” insert comma.

Page 40.—“bark.” I see caro Latin, whence carina? means bark of tree as well as “flesh.”

Page 44.—“four men to each oar,” i.e. two to pull, two to push, if the pushers did not stand, they may have sat alternately with the pullers on the seat behind them.

Page 45.—“proa.” We can form a good idea of the

ancient boats from the plates in Sir E. Belcher's "Voyage of the Samarang," vol. 1. "Attack of pirates off Gilolo," vol. 2. "Imperial Guard Boats, Japan."

Page 47.—for "between one and two hundred," i.e. one hundred and fifty, read, one hundred.

Page 51.—after "Gaelic, righ," read, Gallic, rix, as in Ambiorix.—Cæsar, de Bel. Gal., bk. v. ch. 41.

Page 52.—after "Manco Capac," read, compare Hindostanee, Mahadeo.

Page 53.—with "Dubratius," compare the name Dubricius, Bishop of Llandaff, A.D. 530. Davies Gilbert, History of Cornwall, vol. 1, p. 382.

Page 54.—with "Boduc," compare the Eastern Buddha.

Page 59.—for "expressed," read, expressing.

Page 61.—before "self-acting," insert, apparently.

Page 62.—"principle of fire," compare Psalm 104, 4, "his ministers a flame of fire."

Page 63.—"air," compare Babbage, 9th Bridgewater Treatise, p. 111, "Thus considered &c." and Acts, c. 17, v. 28, "for in him, &c."

Page 64.—perhaps it would make it clearer to say before "when we talk of &c." there is no such thing as nothing; the term "thing" means strictly speaking something tangible, I use it here in the widest sense.

Page 65.—after "properties," insert comma; "Mandrakes," Brande, Dictionary of Science &c. de-

scribes them as hunted by dogs, so truffles are ; "the field," Gen. 30, 14, is hardly the place for them, as they are generally I believe found under trees ; the truffle is a remarkable plant, as it is I believe unknown how they propagate themselves, and excellent eating, as those who have in Paris eaten the *pate de dindon aux truffes* will remember. The Hebrew seems to be *duda*, and we still find in the East, *dar*, a tree, oak, as in *deodara*, so the Druids when they enriched their "outer man" with the profits of the oak, may have regaled their "inner man" on the truffle under the oak. The Latin *mandragoras*, seems to be from man which I make the earth, as in Hebrew *manna*, and the *dar* just now spoken of, or the Greek *drakon*, serpent-root, as if it were "the forbidden fruit," i.e. to all but the Druids, who claimed it as their perquisite, and used it as we do the potato. Homer's *Moly* from being black in the root looks like it, but the truffle does not appear above ground. The Druids had the *anguinum*, or snake-root, which may have been it, if it was not the oak-apple. The pig-nut has a white flower as Homer's *Moly* is described.

Page 65.—"Odyssey, bk. 10," add, line 305.

Page 67.—"greater periods," I would add here after the seasons, but the change from one season to another is not sufficiently definite to mark time by.

Page 68.—"It had gone round the earth." This I

believe is not in accordance with the Copernican theory. But Joshua, Joshua c. 10, v. 12, 13, commanded the sun to stand still, clearly proving that the opinion then was that it moved round the earth, and were not the Israelites of those days equal at least in wisdom to the people of subsequent periods and the present day? I do not pretend to know any thing of astronomy, so only rely on the Scripture account. The Copernicans say I believe the miracle was so spoken of to suit the intellect of the generality of mankind in those days. *Credat Judæus Apella, non ego.* The next thing they will say will be that the sun stopped at Joshua's bidding, and was so astonished it has never been able to move since!!

Page 70.—“applied” insert comma, and omit one after “to.”

Page 71.—“at the latter end of summer.” Cæsar may have chosen this time so as to have arrived at the time of the corn ripening, so as to stand a better chance of getting provisions here, besides he may have calculated the effect which might have been produced on the Britons by putting them on shorter commons than usual if his army eat up their provisions for the winter. “A.C. 55,” of course I mean here *Ante Christum*, but I have before written it “B.C.” as more usual. But in a book with any classical pretensions the B.C. before Christ in English does not accord well

with the A.D. anno Domini in Latin; why not write A.C. and C.A., or A.D. and D.A., which would be both clearer and correspond better with one another.

Page 74.—for “Portius,” read, Portus.

Page 76.—before “Cassii,” insert, the.

Page 77.—“as Richmond,” for Richmond read, Twickenham.

Page 78.—“either of,” read, either that of.

Page 82.—“Chertsey,” this town is written Ceorteseye and Ceroti insula, as if derived from the name of some person or other. The C may have been pronounced Ch as the Italians sometimes now pronounce it, as may also the C in Caesar by the Romans.

Page 83.—omit “outposts and all,” as not being in accordance with the idea of an army on the march.

Page 87.—for “London,” read, Twickenham; and p. 88, “Trinovantum,” I am misled here by the old Chroniclers. The London of Tacitus, as he wrote about A.D., 100, may not have existed at this time which is 150 years prior to the time of Tacitus. Trinovantum means “of the Trinovantes,” i.e. the town “of the Trinovantes,” which I think after all must be Twickenham, at the head of the tide waters. The Greeks and Romans having no w wrote the British Twychen, Twickenham, the village of three ways, in Welsh Twy is three, with an r instead, hence Trinovant.

or Trinobas, genitive Trinobantos with a Greek termination. Kew close by and adjoining Richmond is from the Arabic Kuh, a hill, i.e. Richmond hill; Shene and Richmond are modern names. If the ford was not at Coway Stakes I should place it here, or how did Cæsar know it was eighty Roman miles from Deal, unless he went, but then on the other hand he may have returned that way. The natives would have told him it was so many days or hours journey. This does not affect my argument that the chief town of the Trinobantes, whatever it was, was north of the Thames: but if Cæsar had crossed at Twickenham he would have fallen on the Trinobantes first, for their territory must have joined that of the Cassii here, but he fell on the Cassii first.

Page 94.—“Skin.” Hides may have been an article of export to the Mediterranean from Britain, as they now are to us from the River Plate.

Page 95.—“on board ship;” was our cock-pit in ships called from this practice, or was it cook-pit?

Page 99.—“We find &c.” Tacitus Germania, 23, confirms my view, “in similitudinem vini.” I think they made the beer first, and then distilled the spirit from the beer.

Page 101.—“Celt,” the Celt may have been the stump of an axe worn down

Page 105.—“Spruce fir.” If it was from Britain the mast for Hiero’s, King of Sicily, ship was fetched,

as mentioned by Sharon Turner, *History Anglo Saxons*, bk. 1, ch. 4, from Atheneus, this would be an argument that the Spruce was indigenous in England.

Page 107.—for “hecame” read, became.

Page 108.—for “their” read, the; for “sending,” read, bringing.

Page 112.—after “play,” omit comma.

HENRY LAMB, PRINTER, CHERTSEY.

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